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PETRALOGY.

A

TREATISE ON ROCKS.

BY J. PINKERTON.

VOL. II.

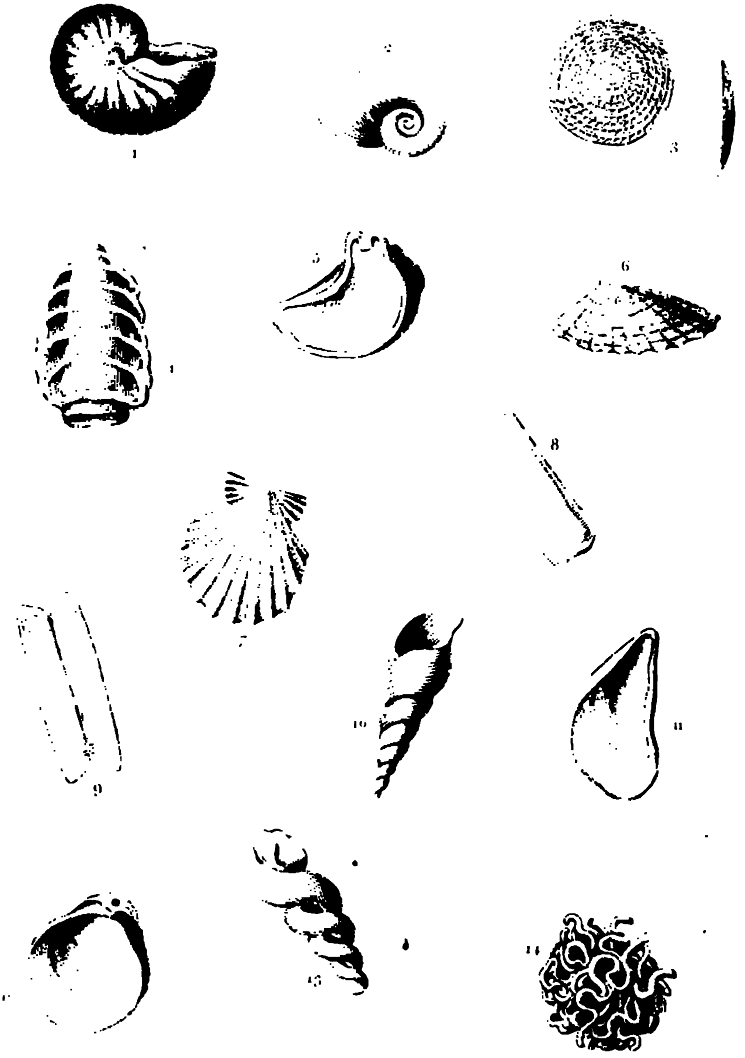
LONDON.

PRINTED FOR WHITE, COCHRANE & C° FLEET STREET.

By S. Hamilton & C° Weybridge.

1811.

PLATE II



1. Nautilite
2. Nerite
3. Nummulite
4. Orthoceratite
5. Ostracite
6. Patellite
7. Pectinite
8. Pinnite
9. Solenite
10. Strombite
11. Tellinite
12. Terebratulite
13. Turbinite
14. Vermiculite

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trary. The only idea that arose was to select terms that might indicate subdivisions of the Domains, and still, if possible, preserve some relation with chemistry, upon which the whole science of mineralogy ultimately depends. In Egypt, universally known to have been the parent country of chemistry, the small provinces or districts were distinguished by an appellation which the Greeks have translated Nomes, from a word simply implying divisions. But the word may be said to have remained sacred to Egypt, not having been transferred to the provinces of any other country. This word had also the advantage of subdivisions easy to the memory, in Hyponome and Micronome, implying greater and lesser subdivisions of the Nome.

Nome.

Hyponome. Micronome.

Such were the reasons for the preference of this arbitrary term to any other arbitrary term; and as it cannot be too often repeated that the chief use of any system of natural history is to assist the memory, it will perhaps be difficult to find a term less objectionable; at least, though the plan has been deeply reconsidered for many years, none such has arisen to the author: but perhaps candid disquisition, and literary collision, may produce some more appropriate appellation, which he would be the first to adopt, having no view but the advancement of the science. Even in lithology and metallogy, Nomes will be found preferable to the Groups or Families of the Wernerians, denominations chiefly belonging to animated nature; and the clear metallic divisions of Thomson, Alloys, Sulphurets, Oxyds, and Salts, may well be styled Nomes; for the term being arbitrary there can be no objection to its occasional introduction even under Domains which are substantial.

Terms sometimes lax.

Above all it must not be forgotten, that in no science, except those that are mathematical, can the terms admit mathematical precision. In the other kingdoms of natural history it is well known that disputes frequently arise whether a new object form a genus, a species, or a variety. How much more vague, therefore, must be the language of mineralogy, which depends on the infinite modifications of guages, the names are almost always general, that is to say, vague expressions for objects of the same similitude, however distinct. An oak, a beech, a linden, a yew, a pine, a fir, will all at first be called a *tree*; then the oak, the beech, the linden, will all be called oaks, till they be distinguished from the others, which will be called pines. But particular names will only be found in an advanced state of society, after comparisons and examinations; and the number has been always increased in proportion as nature is more studied and better known; and the more it is examined and compared, the more abundant will be the proper names and peculiar denominations. But when we are now presented with general terms, that is *genera*, it is to send us back to the A B C of knowledge, and recall the darkness of the infancy of nations. Ignorance has created *genera*, science has produced, and always will produce, proper names; and we are never afraid to augment the number of particular denominations when we wish to designate different objects."

Haüy's deviations.

This eloquent author was, however, too inimical to systems of nomenclature on the Linnæan plan; and his observations may be considered as chiefly applicable to mineralogy, in which the arbitrary divisions have been so often confounded, as has already been explained in the general introduction to this work. The most severely scientific writer on mineralogy is Haüy, but even he has been obliged repeatedly to change the subdivisions; for in the first class he has genera, in the second only species; in the third there are two orders; in the fourth three orders, and every metal forms a genus. Nay, as already stated, he has changed the very foundation of his plan, having formally abandoned the integrant molecule, which, as he supposed, constituted the species, for the primitive form, as he confesses that he was often deceived by the integrant molecule*. This molecule was the invention of

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* His argument that crystals resemble the flowers of plants, as a criterion of species, is not just, the crystals being often different from the substance, quartz in limestone, barytes in granite, &c. &c.

Dr. Davy's observations.

"In the concluding lecture, Dr. Davy stated, that the emission of lava from volcanoes was one of the principal operations by which nature supplied the waste of rocks, and the destruction of the land noticed in his former lectures. The agency of volcanoes in the production of islands, and the increase of continents, is more extensive, than those who reside at a distance from their influence are disposed to admit. Proofs of this may be traced in the islands and shores of the Mediterranean, in the continent of America, and in Asia, and in other parts of the globe. Nearly the whole of Sicily, and the southern parts of Italy and France, offer evidence of their volcanic origin; and Rome, which has by ancient writers been proudly styled the "Eternal City," is built on the crater of an extinct volcano. The phenomena attending the eruption of volcanoes were described from Hamilton, Dolomieu, Spalanzani, and others, who had been present during the eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius.

"The convulsion of the solid ground, the lofty columns of flame, smoke, and vapour, the tremendous explosions, the torrents of rain, and the thunder and lightning, which accompany the eruption of lava, all indicate that the immediate cause is the expansion of steam and hydrogen gas, which inflames when in contact with the atmosphere. The doctrine of a central fire was unsupported by proof or analogy: did such a fire exist its effects must be felt at the surface, even if it had to pass through the most imperfect conductors of heat.

"To ascertain the cause which produced the expansion of vapour, and the other phenomena of volcanoes, we must examine the products of these august operations of Natural Chemistry. If we observe a fire at a distance, and are able to collect its products, we may thence determine the nature of the substances which have been in a state of combustion. The products of volcanoes are hydrogen gas, vapour, and lava, of which lava is a compound of the earths, the alkalies, and the oxyd of iron.—In his former lectures, Dr. Davy ob-

"Mr. Watt having fused a large quantity of basalt, in the centre of the mass which was slowly cooled, the crystals of basalt were large; but they grew less as they approached the surface, which was amorphous and vitrified.

"The lava emitted from volcanoes is speedily decomposed by the action of moisture and the atmosphere, and forms the most fertile soils. No countries are more productive than those in the vicinity of volcanoes, if below the line of perpetual snow. The volcanic island of Santorin, which was raised in the Archipelago in one night, in the year 1770, is now in part covered with a luxuriant vegetation, and no country in Europe is more productive than the lower declivities of Etna.

"The operations of nature are on a scale too extended to be measured by days or years: they require ages to produce their full effect. What appears destructive and desolating at the first view, is found on a more comprehensive examination to be attended with permanent advantage. The lava and the ashes which burned Herculaneum and Pompeia, have furnished abundant harvests for fifteen centuries. The evils that nature inflicts are transient, but her benefits are of lasting duration."

It is unnecessary to warn the reader that this extract is not from the hand of the excellent author, and that of course it is only the general current of the ideas which deserves attention. But as the Germans have too much restricted, or rather annihilated, the influence of volcanoes, it seems here to be rather too much enlarged: for if we suppose two hundred existing volcanoes, and compute the medium of their agency at thirty miles each, the amount will be six thousand square miles, or at the most equal to the island of Sicily, about seven thousand two hundred. But the extinct volcanoes would probably more than double the extent; and it seems certain that in the chaotic and ancient state of the globe, before the component substances had acquired their present solidity and temperature, numerous volcanoes must have existed, which have been totally and radically extin-

Space of volcanic appearances.

great purposes of nature; we behold the one employed i the *individual* combination of substances, the other in th *general arrangement of the whole.* We behold the contradictory opinions of theory, and the diversity of appearances i nature, connected and harmonizing with the truths of modern chemistry!" *

Nor must it be forgotten that our ideas of a chaotic stat seem to be confined to this globe only, instead of being a least extended to our solar system. And if we conceive, wit La Place, that the planetary bodies were formed by the concretion of an aëriform fluid, emanating from the sun, whic derives its splendour from the Deity, the fountain of light human imagination can never conceive the universal effervescence and developement of various vapours and gases which must have appeared in the primeval universe. But i this and other grand ideas the prince of modern philosophe will ever be found to lead the way, having thus expresse

Newton's idea.

himself in his immortal PRINCIPIA. "The vapours whic arise from the sun, the fixed stars, and the tails of comets may fall by their gravity into the atmospheres of the planets where they may be condensed and converted into water an humid gases; and afterwards by a slow heat graduate int salts, and sulphurs, and tinctures, and mire, and mud, an clay, and sand, and stones, and corals, and other earthy substances" † Did not this eagle of intuition thus foresee th pneumatic chemistry?

The important geological observations of Dr. Davy on th subject of volcanoes also excite, and may authorise, som other general remarks on the theory of the earth, which wi not, it is hoped, be found wholly digressive.

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* Sketch of a New Demonstration of Nature, London 1810, 8vo.

† Vapores autem qui ex sole, et stellis fixis, et caudis cometarum oriuntu incidere possunt per gravitatem suam, in atmosphæras planetarum; et ibi co densari, et converti in aquam et spiritus humidos: et subinde, per calorem le tum, in sales, et sulphura, et tincturas, et limum, et lutum, et argillam, arenam, et lapides, et coralla, et substantias alias terrestres, paullatim migrare.
NEWTON *Princ. part* ii. *prop.* 42.

however, from the external constitution, the predominant central substances are iron and silex, or the metal of silex. For silex itself, as already explained, is frequently a new production, found in the straw of graminous plants and the bark of the bamboo. Nay, pebbles of quartz are found in the bamboo itself; and often of the size of a pea in the eggs of the ostrich*.

Ferrara's theory.

Ferrara's able account of the volcanoes of Sicily has also opened some new geological ideas. In one passage he thus expresses himself: "The natural philosopher who has explained the formation, that is, the condensation and consolidation, of the globe, and the inequalities of its surface, as being produced by operations arising from an innate power in matter, from a power most generally diffused, from a power to which nature has put no limits of action upon the spot which we inhabit, but at the same time destined to bind all the parts of the universe together, in order to form a well-regulated whole; in a word, by gravitation: it would seem that he approaches nearer the verisimilitude of causes: he does not leave the earth in order to explain the facts which are found in it; he has not created extraordinary powers; but has attributed all the phenomena to agencies which still operate, although upon another scale, but which would renew the same phenomena, if they were conducted under the same circumstances. From what I have said it may be understood that my opinion is with those who suppose that this globe was formed of materials which, being first diffused in a fluid, were thence deposited successively, and which occasioned all the disorder which we observe on the surface by the sinking of some parts, while others remain elevated in their original site and level. Burnet, who not long since started this grand and perhaps ancient idea, has the other. Such is the mountainous mass, terminating i the summit, upon which stands the village of Carlentini To suppose, with Dolomieu, that the lava pressed throug the vale, whence, rising by the side, it arrived at the top without having passed to the other side, is to suppose a order of things which can never have existed at the epoc when the lava was fluid. In fact, this division does not exis when you proceed towards the west, above Lentini, wher the lavas cover all parts, that is, the volcanic stratum cover all that extent. The same phenomena are observable in th mountains of Canzaria, near Vizzini, and in some which ar in the plain of Marineo, beyond Licodia. In all these strati form mountains the position of the strata of similar material corresponds from one mountain to another; a circumstanc which may be estimated by the eye, where the breadth of th valleys is not too great. This circumstance demonstrates th character of the revolutions which have produced these in equalities."[*] He afterwards proceeds to state the sinking o a part of a mountain in 1536, and the catastrophe whic happened at Nicosia about 1750, when a fourth part of th city, with the convent and churches of the Capuchins, sun in one day, so that nothing could be seen but the tops o the buildings, and of the trees; but the people escaped b stepping out of the windows. In 1740 the town of Salem suffered the same misfortune; and in 1790 some lands sun near S. Maria di Niscemi. He also states that the people o a place, a few miles to the west of Catania, thirteen years ag could only see the top of the cupola of the Benedictine mo nastery of that city, the prospect having been impeded b the lava of 1669, but now the entire cupola is seen, th chalky soil under the lava having subsided[†].

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* See Barrow's Cape of Good Hope. Breislak, ii. 205, may be consulted for the dissolution of silex, which he says is effected by water impregnated with caloric, soda, and sulphur in a state of vapour. Kirwan, i. 155, says, oxyd of iron with microcosmic salt yields a pale green glass, that is, a siliceous substance.

Perhaps this doctrine of subsidence might of itself explai the inequalities and other phenomena of the earth's surface without having recourse to any concussion of a satellite o other body. The summits of basalt, and the caps of lime resulting from the rupture of the beds, at the time of the vast subsidence which sunk the former continents, and produced the new concavity of the ocean.

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[*] Ferr. 376.

[†] Ferr. 378.

These theories may be compared with the Wernerian and Huttonian, and that of Ferrara, founded, as he says, on that of Burnet. The rocks having been hitherto considered as the chief province of the geologist, it is hoped these few cursory remarks will not be found foreign to the purpose. But Petralogy, as already observed, has little more connexion with Geology than its sister sciences Lithology or Metallogy; and, like them, can only be regarded as an introduction. In which point of view these observations may not be found unuseful to the student. But it is time to return to the description of the Accidential Domains, an accurate knowledge of which may be regarded as peculiarly indispensable to any system of geology, such theories having so often confounded the pride of human science. The more humble sage will perhaps be contented with the knowledge of the substances themselves, and prefer what Gibbon calls a LEARNED IGNORANCE to any geological theory.

VI. *Basaltin, with Earthy Felspar* .
VII. *Basaltin, with Siderite* ....
VIII. *Basaltin, with Silex* ....
IX. *Basaltin, with Wacken* ....
X. *Basaltin, with Steatite* ....
XI. *Slate, with Silex* ....
XII. *Slate, with Magnesia* ....
XIII. *Slate, with Lime* ....
XIV. *Quartz, with Iron* ....
XV. *Quartz, with Basaltin* ....
XVI. *Quartz, with Slate* ....
XVII. *Quartz, with Felspar* ....
XVIII. *Keralite, with Chlorite* ....
XIX. *Schistose Keralite and Slate* ......
XX. *Schistose Keralite and Limestone*
XXI. *Steatite, with Argil* ....
XXII. *Ollite, with Silex* ....
XXIII. *Serpentine, with Siderite* ....
XXIV. *Serpentine, with Basaltin* ....
XXV. *Limestone, with Argil* ....
XXVI. *Limestone, with Gypsum* ....
XXVII. *Limestone, with Silex* ....
XXVIII. *Gypsum, with Marl* ....
XXIX. *Gypsum, with Silex* ....

DOMAIN IX. ANOMALOUS.

Nome I. *Miagite* ....
II. *Niolite* ....

DOMAIN XI. DECOMPOSED. p. 209
Nome I. *Decomposed Basaltin* 235
II. *D. Porphyry* 238
III. *D. Slate* 240
IV. *D. Quartz* ib.
V. *D. Keralite* 241
VI. *D. Felspar* ib.
VII. *D. Granite* 242
VIII. *D. Gneiss* 247
IX. *D. Pitch-stone* 148
X. *D. Sandstone* ib.
XI. *D. Clay-slate* 249
XII. *D. Saussurite* ib.
XIII. *D. Marble* 250
XIV. *D. Alabaster* ib.
XV. *D. Coal* ib.
Effects of Decomposition 253

DOMAIN XII. VOLCANIC. 268
Nome I. *Compact Lava* 313
II. *Vesicular Lava* 328
III. *Indurated Mud* 373
IV. *Tufo* 378
V. *Pumice* 428
VI. *Obsidian* 443
VII. *Volcanic Intrite* 469
VIII. *Volcanic Glutenite* 503
IX. *Substances ejected or changed* 515
General Remarks, and Examples of singular Volcanoes 519
Fumavols 545
Veinstones 561
Appendix 591

ranged granite, gneiss, porphyry, amygdalite, bricia, and sand-stone; and the reader will be surprised to find what various and discordant objects are united under these vague appellations. Mr. Kirwan has, in like manner, two titles of Aggregated and Derivative Stones; the other rocks being considered under the simple substances.

Werner's theory.

Daubuisson supplied Brochant with a short account of rocks upon the plan of the Wernerian geology, or, as it is called, geognosy, not by the most fortunate term, for the Gnostics have been celebrated for sixteen centuries as only pretenders to knowledge. But Werner is, on the contrary, the most able and sagacious observer that the science has ever produced; and his observations will continue valuable to the latest posterity. His reputation cannot be injured even by the insolent tone of his disciples, who seem to say, "Are we not sons of the wise, and shall not knowledge die with us?" Daubuisson has however treated this subject with great modesty and accuracy. The fault in the plan is, structured: the stones must not only be hewn out of the quarry, but most accurately squared, before the temple can be erected. But true science and theory are so completely opposite, that any attempt to blend them has always defeated its object.

To Mr. Jameson we are greatly indebted for a more ample account of the Wernerian theory of rocks, which he has illustrated with considerable care and attention, so as to form by far the most complete treatise on the subject which has yet appeared. But an infinite number of rocks occur in nature, which have neither name nor local habitation in the Wernerian system, nor in the Huttonian; though no science can be called complete without enumerations of all its objects, and in the present instance one neglected rock might perhaps suffice to overturn a theory. The greatest misfortune in the progress of human knowledge has always been, that theories have been constructed before facts have been observed. The theories are indeed useful, of rocks, arising from local relations, must always be regarded as empyrical, and will often prove wholly erroneous. That great observer, Saussure, found, in the ample scene of the Alps, that he was farther removed from the formation of a theory, after the sedulous labour of forty years, than at the beginning; that instead of any regular plan or order, he found perpetual contradictions, in the assemblage and coalescence of substances, that seemed to be wholly remote and dissimilar. "It may well be affirmed," says he, "that there is nothing certain in the Alps, but their variety. . . . . Sometimes the skirts are calcareous, sometimes magnesian. The centres and highest summits are here of massive granite, there of a calcareous mica slate; sometimes of magnesian stones, sometimes of gneiss: if the beds be considered, here they are vertical, there horizontal; here their inclination follows the slope of the mountain, there quite the contrary."* We may add, from more recent observations,

Saussure's remarks,

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* § 2301.

it has already been explained that felspar and quartz, united with siderite or mica, or with both, are indispensable attributes of that substance. The mica may pass to micarel, or even steatite; and the appearance of schorl or garnets, not to mention the gems, cannot be considered as altering the nature of the substance.

But the name granite has, on the contrary, by Gmelin and many other writers, been extended to almost every aggregation that can be conceived. Such heterogeneous aggregations are here arranged under the name of Composite Rocks; while some, as that beautiful rock called the Corsican granitel, are placed among the Anomalous, as departing from the usual rules observed by nature.

Substantial and Accidental Divisions.

The latter six great divisions of the rocks, being derived, not from the *nature of the substances* themselves, but from *accidences* or circumstances, may be called ACCIDENTIAL, or circumstantial; while the former divisions are SUBSTANTIAL. The chemical *Mode* therefore, so essential in more essential than the nature and power of the substances combined, as appears from an infinite number of analyses, it cannot be admitted into these new divisions, derived from accidential, and not from substantial, differences, as has been just mentioned; and the inferior terms being equally objectionable, the adoption of a new appellation becomes indispensable. The word

Nome.

NOME has been adopted, as short and convenient, and as applied by the Greek writers to the districts of Egypt, the first country where chemistry and mineralogy appear to have been studied. It is therefore not only of classical authority, but has an affinity, so to speak, with the parent country of the science, and thus presents scientific recollections*. The author has the greatest aversion to unnecessary neology, the chief use of language being to be understood, and that the thoughts may be accurately perceived, as flowers or fruits

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* The word in all its relations seems strictly Greek, and is probably only a translation of a Coptic word, especially as Strabo informs us that the Nomes were divided into Toparchies.

HYPONOME I.

Garnet, in a base of siderite.

HYPONOME II.

Siderite, in a base of garnet.

Siderite, with garnet rock, from Scotland.
The same, from Sweden.

NOME II. SIDERITE, FELSPAR, GRAPHITE.

A little chain of rocks, amidst the eternal snows of Mont Blanc, consists of laminar black or green siderite, felspar, and graphite, with a little quartz and mica*.

NOME III. SIDERITE, UNCTUOUS QUARTZ, PYRITES.

Mont Broglia, a southern spur of Mont Blanc, is of a stone softer than granite, being a mixture of siderite, felspar, mica, unctuous quartz, and pyrites†.

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* Sauss. 1974.

† Ib. 911.

NOME VI. MICA AND ACTINOTE.

A composition rather uncommon, but found in primitive regions, abounding in mica slate.

Mica and actinote, from Mount St. Gothard.

NOME VII. ACTINOTE, SIDERITE, MICA.

A composite rock of delphinite or actinote, greenish siderite, felspar, and white mica, all in little grains or plates*.

NOME VIII. QUARTZ, SIDERITE, OXYD OF IRON.

A rock, composed of quartz, siderite, mica, and oxyd of iron; together with a tabular felspar, which he calls *sanidine*, a substance in silky tufts, which he calls *desmine*, and another resembling spinel, which he calls *spinelan*, was discovered by Nose on the banks of the lake of Laach, near Andernach. See his mineralogy of the mountains of the Rhine, quoted in the *Jour-*

* Sauss. § 1293.

NOME XII. FELSPAR, QUARTZ, TALC.

This noble rock contains plates of splendid talc, varying in size from half an inch to many feet in diameter. It chiefly occurs in the Uralian mountains, whence talc has sometimes been called Muscovy glass.

NOME XIII. FELSPAR, FIBROUS SIDERITE.

A rock in confused veins of felspar, white mica, and green fibrous siderite *.

NOME XIV. FELSPAR, CALCAREOUS SPAR.

A rock of great rarity, and seldom occurring except in the ejections of Mount Vesuvius, which also affords a composite stone of felspar, garnets, and actinote; with other aggregations on which it would be tedious to enlarge. Nor is it certain that they occur in such masses as to constitute rocks. Many may be mere parasites or vein stones.

* Sauss. § 1359.

colour of the chalcedony is a bluish grey; but it also appears of a yellowish white, and often covered with ferruginous rust. Sometimes there are zones, concentric and in festoons, of a paler colour. The fracture is various, sometimes uniform, sometimes scaly, sometimes a little conchoidal; and its hardness is such that the file cannot touch it. It is coeval with the granite, for nodules of granite may be found in the chalcedony, as well as the contrary. These granitic nodules contain very little mica, but abundant felspar, yellow or reddish, and quartz, of which the aspect sometimes approaches that of the chalcedony. The pyrites is interlaced in a remarkable manner, being in plates nearly regular, a quarter of a line in thickness, and about five or six lines in length. These plates cross each other in certain places, in every direction. Each of the plates is included in a kind of salband, of a breadth equal to that of the plate, of a deeper coloured chalcedony than the rest of the stone. The pyrites is of a pale brass colour, and granular fracture, but decomposes in the air; so that its beauty only becomes apparent on a fresh fracture*.

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* Saussure afterwards discovered abundance of chalcedony in the granites and gneiss of the plains, and particularly in the ancient Bourbonnois. See tome v. p. xi.

NOME XVIII. GRANITE AND LIME-STONE.

This mixture, like most of the others, appears in the Alps.

HYPONOME I.

Granite, with lime-stone.

Micronome 1. Gneiss, with lime-stone.

NOME XIX. GRANITE AND SLATE.

Veins of granite in slate.

Slate, by some called argillaceous schistus, is sometimes found blended with granite, though in general it rather seems to form a distinct line; and it commonly rests on granite, as being of a more recent formation. The veins of granite that run through slate have afforded matter of discussion to various theorists, who thence argue that the granite is of more recent formation, or at least that they are both coeval. It has been affirmed by some, that what is called granite, in such instances, is of an imperfect form, being either granitel of two substances, or the mica not in its usual state of crystallisation. Granites ning recess; and which show the tendency, common in this sort of stone, to divide itself into fragments of even sides.

"Above and beneath this vein there are others more narrow, one in particular, which is not above half an inch in breadth, and is prolonged, like the former, for a space of seven or eight feet. Some of the little veins show that the beds of the *roche de corne* have subsided, or sunk unequally, since the granite penetrated into it; for they seem to be suddenly interrupted, and to begin anew a little higher or a little lower. The broadest vein seems also to have yielded a little in some parts.

"These veins of granite, which were then new to me, appear to throw light on the formation of that stone. For to any man a little versed in mineralogy, it is almost demonstrable that this granite has been formed in these veins, by mere filtration of the waters, which, in descending from the mountain of granite, which hangs over these schistose rocks, brought down the elements of that mountain, which they deposited and crystallised in these fissures. When one finds the slits of a marble, or of a slate, filled with spar or quartz, one decides, without hesitation, that these foreign bodies, or parasitical, as Linnæus calls them, have been brought by it an angle of 80 degrees inclining towards the west, and running from north to south.

"There I found a vein of granite 21 inches in breadth, and uncovered for a length of about 18 feet. This vein, of which the sides are parallel, traverses the layers of schistose rock, under an angle of 30 degrees, and forms with the horizon an angle of 50 degrees, with the same inclination as the layers. The granite which forms this vein has shrunk, like that of Valorsine, with some rectilinear fissures, which cross each other irregularly. There are seen in the same rock other veins of granite, of a less considerable size, the largest being parallel to that which I have described, while the others run in an oblique direction.

"I observed similar veins in the schistose rock, at the foot of the wall of the city, and under the path which accompanies that wall. One of them, about fourteen inches in breadth, is perpendicular to the horizon, like the layers of the rock. It passes under the wall, and must enter into the city. Near the Saone, and within the city, is a quarry of granite, which was wrought at the time I made my observations.

"In fine, I made at Semur, in Auxois, an observation analogous to the preceding, and which ginally formed in the ancient ocean that covered the earth; that it is disposed in beds or layers, though sometimes very thick and difficult to discover, especially as those of the lower mountains are apt to split into fragments, either rhomboidal, or at least with flat sides, which he ascribes chiefly to the mixture of argil in one of his *pierres de corne;* and as he mentions that it is frequent in these granites, he must mean hornblende or siderite: adding, that the absence of marine bodies in granite, gneiss, &c. affords no proof that they were not formed under water, the most ancient ocean probably having contained no animated matter, as a pure infusion, for example, only displays animalcules at the end of a certain time.

Scarcely a phenomenon in orology has escaped Saussure, if his work be accurately read, or rather studied, as it well deserves; and what is regarded as a new observation may be here found, namely, the elevation of the veins of granite above the clay-slate, which, in his wide field of observation, he simply accounts for by the subsidence, or shrinking, an accident common to clay; not to mention the greater softness of the substance, which may more easily be worn down by the weather. Nor is it inconceivable, on the other hand, that those veins

TITE.

Tirey, one of the weste
presents a white marble wi
posed to be steatite.

In the same interesting isl
are reciprocally interveined.

HYPONOME I

Marble, with veins of steati

HYPONOME II.

With spots.

NOME XXV. LIME-STONE,

Olivine, before chiefly obse
basalt, is also found in the mica
of Mount Somma, of which V
regarded as onl [illegible] portion. F

NOME XXVI. LIME-STONE, WITH ACTINOTE.

Tirey marble. The beautiful rose-coloured marble of Tirey not only contains large crystals of siderite, sometimes an inch and a half in length, of a black or very dark green colour, but numerous other crystals of a lighter green, which every candid observer would allow to be the same substance, with a slight diversity of colour. It seems now to be universally allowed by the most skilful mineralogists, that actinote is only a diversity of siderite, with a greater portion of magnesia, an earth which singularly affects the green colour. But this actinote must not be confounded with the epidote of Haüy, a mistake into which many writers have fallen, whereas the latter contains no magnesia, and a greater quantity of lime*. Under the epidote he ranks zoisite, so called from Baron Zois; and the scorza, or greenish sand, found near Muska, in Transylvania. The sahlite he ranks under pyroxene, or augite. These substances are mentioned because they have been supposed to have been found in the marble of Tirey, which sometimes also presents of Queen Christina. The space where it is found is about 2000 fathoms in length, but its breadth is inconsiderable. They make of it tombstones, slabs for tables, vases for butter, salt cellars, and mortars; and the sale of these different articles amounts annually to about 20,000 francs. There are magazines of it at Stockholm, at Gottenburg, at Carlskrona, and at Abo. The manufactory employs about twenty workmen, who receive each two livres ten sous (about two shillings) daily; and its position is fine and well adapted for working, as it is near the Baltic sea.

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* See his *Tableau comparatif*, Paris, 1809. 8vo. notes 51, 55.

" The marble-quarry of Gillebeck, in Norway, is seven leagues distant from Christiana; but as the marble which it furnishes is saturated with a great quantity of pyrites, it generally becomes decomposed in a few years. The great church of Frederick, at Copenhagen, which is unfinished, is built with this marble. I have often seen some pretty tablets of it, which contained garnets, and a green substance called actinote."

The Tirey marble seldom takes a fine polish. Perhaps by a mill, or a steam-engine, and high friction with putty, this defect might be remedied. But granite itself seldom admits a perfect polish, owing, as in the Tirey marble, to the

DOMAIN VIII.

DIAMICTONIC.

General observations. THESE rocks, in which the substances may be said to be chemically combined, form the most difficult province of the whole science, and might deserve a separate treatise, like the *Cryptogamia* of the Botanists. Siderous earth, for example, may be found so intimately and equally combined with the siliceous, that the rock combinations; while those of calcareous earth and magnesia are far more rare. In his Geological Essays he observes, that stones are either original, as granite, or derivative, as sand-stone; while, in his mineralogy, he has classed sand-stone, along with granite, among the aggregates.

The appellation and distinction are in fact alike fallacious. That a red sand-stone may be derived from the detritus of a red granite, may be justly admitted; but this affords almost the only example of a real derivative stone. And the intimate combinations of which Mr. Kirwan speaks are so far from being derivative, that they often belong to the most original and primitive substances. But when Mr. Kirwan published his valuable system in 1794 (and the last edition is merely reprinted), the knowledge of rocks was extremely confined, and regarded only as an appendage to mineralogy, instead of forming a grand and distinct science, a rank to which its dignity and importance authorise it to aspire.

some portions, as usual in the infinite variety of nature, the quartz will preponderate, and sometimes the siderite. Saussure's description is as follows:

Glazed rock.

"We now arrived at this singular rock, which formed the object of this excursion. Its superior surface inclines to the east, under an angle of 43 degrees. It is this surface which is polished, and in so bright a manner, that it forms a perfect mirror. In some parts it is perfectly plane, so that tables might be cut from eight to ten feet in length, and of a proportional breadth; while in other parts it is a little undulated, but still equally polished. It is here veined like a marble; there marked with angular spots, like fragments enchased in a base. The colour varies, the ground being commonly brown or blackish, and the spots of a pure white; sometimes however the ground itself is white. This stone is very hard, yielding abundant sparks under the flint, whence the polish resembles that of an agate or a jasper, having more splendour than that of marble. The white parts are undoubtedly of semi-transparent quartz, infusible by the blow-pipe, but dissolving very speedily, and with a lively effervescence, in mineral alkali. The black parts appear of two kinds; those which are nearest the polished surface losing

NOME III. SIDERITE, WITH FELSPAR.

[FIRMICITE, from *Julius Firmicus*, who flourished under Constantine I. and first mentions alchemy, "*scientiam alchemiæ*[*]."]

Graustein. The graustein of Werner is an intimate mixture of siderite with white felspar, which last often predominates. According to Mr. Jameson[†] it contains olivine and augite, like basaltin, and sometimes passes into that substance. It is frequent near Vesuvius, and in some other parts of Italy.

NOME IV. SIDERITE, WITH EARTHY FELSPAR.

[SYNESITE, from *Synesius*, one of those Greek philosophers, in Egypt, who cultivated this science, A. D. 400.]

This combination has been described by Saussure. The mixture of siderite and felspar, in

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[*] Matheseos iii. 15. Orosius first states, that Diocletian burnt the books of the Egyptians.

[†] iii. 190.

NOME VI. BASALTIN, WITH EARTHY FELSPAR.

[GEBRITE, from *Geber* (Abou Moussa GIABER ben Haijam al Sofi), the first of the Arabian chemists, A. D. 830.]

Saussure afterwards describes another singular diamictonic rock, which he found near Mont Blanc.

" Fragments of a remarkable rock are afterwards observed; its colour is red, inclining to violet, like the dark lees of wine; it is not schistose, but in hard and compact masses; yields fire with steel. In the fracture its grain appears a little scaly; and if observed with a lens, it is found mixed with dull grey parts. These parts, softer than the rest of the rock, become white when scraped with a knife, and are unquestionably of *pierre de corne*. As for the hard and reddish base, it seems to be of the same nature with that of several porphyries, which have been improperly classed among jaspers. The blast of the blow-pipe discolours and melts it, though with difficulty, into a transparent glass, strewed with small bubbles. This cha-

NOME VIII. BASALTIN, WITH SILEX.

[Ebensinite, from *Eben Sina*, or Avicenna, A. D. 1020.]

The siliceous part is generally felsite. Basaltin sometimes passes into a more siliceous substance, which, in the north of Ireland, is schistose, and contains ammonites. It is supposed to be a detritus of the basaltin, mixed with siliceous particles in the primeval waters.

NOME IX. BASALTIN, WITH WACKEN.

[Albertite, from *Albertus Magnus*, A. D. 1220.]

This combination sometimes occurs in Saxony, and other basaltic countries. But far more generally the basaltin is separated from the wacken by a positive line.

considerable part of the combination; but the rock still preserves the slaty appearance.

NOME XII. SLATE, WITH MAGNESIA.

[VALENTINITE, from *Basil Valentine* (his real name see Dufresnoy, i. 229), A. D. 1410.]

This substance is commonly to be distinguished by its unctuous or silky appearance. The magnesia sometimes assumes the form of small scales, as at Holyhead, where it is also sometimes invested with a crust of foliated steatite, and sometimes includes masses of pure talc and amianthus*. The same interesting spot likewise presents schistose siderite, penetrated with talc or micarel. It has commonly layers of quartz between the plates of siderite.

HYPONOME I.

Level.

HYPONOME II.

Undulated.

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* Kirwan i. 382.

NOME XV. QUARTZ, WITH BASALTIN

[Torricellite, from *Tarricelli*, A. D. 1640

This is a scarce rock, and may rather be
ferred to the mixture of siderite with quartz.

NOME XVI. QUARTZ, WITH SLATE.

[Glauberite, from *Glauber*, A. D. 1650.]

A diamictonic rock, composed of quartz, i
pregnated with slate*.

NOME XVII. QUARTZ, WITH FELSPAR

[Guericite, from *Otto von Guerick*, A.
1660.]

Saussure has described a rock of this natur
the particles being so combined, that it cou
not be said to belong to either substance.

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* Sauss. § 1955.

NOME XXI. STEATITE, WITH ARGIL.

[STAHLITE, from *Stahl*, 1700.]

Dr. Babington informs us, that this substance is harder, and less unctuous, than common steatite, and has an earthy smell when breathed on. That of Cornwall is of a dark olive-green colour, and slaty texture[*].

NOME XXII. OLLITE, WITH SILEX.

[POTTALITE, from *Pott*, of Berlin, who first analysed stones and earths, 1730.]

This kind is described by Mr. Kirwan[†]. The quartz is in many parts visible in the veins, and the lustre approaches that of graphite.

[*] Cat. St. Aubyn, p. 118.

[†] i. 376.

Pyrenees, which from its remarkable structure however may partially be classed among the Anomalous Rocks. Its decomposition in the air, so visible in the pillars of the palace at Trianon, is owing to the mixture of argil, which imbibes moisture. Karsten, in his description of Leske's Museum, mentions granular lime-stone, mixed with clay-slate, from Kunnersdorf, in Upper Lusatia.

HYPONOME I.

Marble of Campan, &c.

Micronome 1. Lime-stone, with argil.

NOME XXVI. LIME-STONE, WITH GYPSUM.

[LAVOISITE, from *Lavoisier*, 1790.]

This sometimes occurs at Montmartre, near Paris. It is a small proportion of lime, naturally intermixed, which renders the plaister of Paris so much superior to other manufactories of that substance.

a different appearance: thus the lime-stone, Leske, s. 1769, seems as if passing into hornstone, and is of a yellowish grey colour. Lustre, 0. Transparency, 1. Fracture, fine, splintery. Fragments, 1. Hardness, 9. Sp. gr. 2,640. It effervesces briskly with acids, but melts into a greenish grey compact enamel.

"Effervescence with acids is not therefore a sufficient proof that a stone will burn to lime: thus the dark bluish-grey stone, Leske 0. 1229; whose lustre is 0; transparency, 0; fracture, uneven and splintery; fragments, 2; sp. gr. 2,740; hardness, 9; and which contains the impressions of various shells, and effervesces very briskly with acids, yet melts into a black compact glass. It has an earthy smell when breathed on."*

NOME XXVIII. GYPSUM, WITH MARL.

[VAUQUELITE, from *Vauquelin*, 1800.]

Gypsum often forms veins in hardened clay or marl, and is sometimes penetrated with the latter substance. Instances may be found at the Old Passage, near Bristol.

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* Kirwan, i. 373.

Glacier of Miage.

DOMAIN IX.

ANOMALOUS.

General observations. AMIDST the infinite variety of nature there are many rocks which, though sometimes composed of not unusual modes, are of so singular a structure, that they deserve to be ranked in a separate Domain; more especially as the greater part are of distinguished dignity and beauty. Others are entitled to this distinction from their gemwaters, or deposited by them, or appearing as mere efflorescences, or at the most in a gemmose form. And as the important and interesting study of Crystallography, or Chrystallogy, originated from the observation of the salts, they may be considered as belonging to that department of Lithology.

Coal. But the Combustibles stand in a different predicament, for coal is, in many countries, a very common and abundant substance; is found in vast beds, like many other rocks; and may be said to constitute entire hills, as that of St. Gilles, near Liege. In this new point of view, therefore, coal has been ranked among the rocks; and that division also includes the bituminous substances, which ouse from them, or may be found in their recesses; while amber and mellilite remain almost alone for the minute investigations of the gemmologist.

Pyrites. In passing to the sulphuric substances it must be observed, that a most common and general appearance of sulphur, in pyrites, is so interwoven with most of the rocks, that it forms an important feature tion other volcanic territories. It also appears disseminated in some lime-stones, as in Swisserland and Sicily. The fine crystals from Conilla, in Spain, are intermixed with calcareous spar, on a rock of bluish indurated clay; and they contribute to the elegant study of the Gemmologist. The Metallogist has also frequent occasions to describe the sulphurets, or combinations with sulphur, formed by many metals. If any objection should arise to this arrangement, the Salts and Combustibles may be thrown into appendixes; for the theme is too confined to form a distinct province in the mineral kingdom.

From these considerations the rocks of common salt, with the bituminous, sulphuric, and metallic, as those of iron, are ranked among the Anomalous; while those intermixed with pyrites are so trivial, that it is scarcely necessary to distinguish them, even from the common Modes of the Substantial Domains.

The first division of Anomalous Rocks,

substances, bounded by a single black line about half a line in breadth, followed by a broader circle of the felspar. In others the centre is dark grey, bounded by two narrow black lines, followed by a broad circle of lighter grey, succeeded by a black band, about a line and a half in breadth, followed by the white of a quarter of an inch. But the most beautiful glandules, as well as the largest, are those which present a narrow black line, like a hair, on one or both sides of the black band.

Site. This most singular and beautiful of all the rocks was, it is believed, first described by Besson, a venerable mineralogist, formerly Inspector-General of the mines in France*. But Patrin informs us that it was discovered by Barral, a French engineer employed in Corsica; being merely a large solitary block, found, by Besson's account, beneath Olmetto: but as there are many places of that name in Corsica, the indication is not distinct†. So imperfect was then the knowledge of rocks, that Besson supposes the siderite to be steatite. The felspar may however be mingled with quartz, as he and Pa-beautiful stones which I have ever beheld. The largest blocks, and there were some from 30 to 40 feet in diameter, were of a granitello, composed of white felspar and black schorl* in plates. These two kinds of stone were mingled in all the proportions, and under all the forms imaginable. Upon one, were large parallel fillets of the purest white and black; on another, nodules of the most beautiful black, surrounded with concentric veins alternately white and black. Others presented veins in zigzag, between parallel veins. Those which astonished me the most by their structure, were the stones which displayed parallel layers, terminated by other layers which cut them at right-angles, without any appearance of rent or subsequent junction, the block appearing completely uniform†. I greatly regretted that these beautiful masses were not within the reach of a manufactory, where they might be sawn and cut, to make vases, and above all tables, which would be of the most perfect beauty. For there is no marble which can approach to these stones in regard to the size of the veins, their extreme precision, and the bright-the bottom of the waters, horizontal beds, afterwards raised up by a great revolution, and lastly divided by the effects of time. Eleven years of observation and meditation have served to confirm me in that opinion."*

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* Journal de Physique, 1789.

† Saussure says, § 1479, that the ocular granitel of Corsica was discovered by Sionville; and Saussure intended to have described it, when he was prevented by Besson.

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* The language of that time for hornblende or siderite.

† So quartz sometimes appears in clay slate.—P.

It is evident that one of the singular rocks above described, that with concentric zones of black and white, is the same which was found in Corsica. It might be styled OCULITE, or *Ophthalmite;* but as agates, and other substances, sometimes assume that form, it was thought advisable, as a new name is indispensable for so singular a structure, to term it Miagite, from the place where it was discovered by Saussure.

This excellent observer afterwards discovered similar rocks on the glacier of Lauteraar.

Glacier of Lauteraar.

"Not being able to survey these ridges, I observed at least the wrecks with which the glacier is covered, and which come from these ridges, or their vicinity. Some of these fragments are of common granite, others of veined ble. Among them are the variolites of Drac; and another variolite, of laminar siderite, of a dull black inclining to green; spangled with crystals of felspar, sometimes rhomboidal, sometimes circular, with green dots of hornblende towards the centre. Saussure observes, that it somewhat approaches to the ocular granitel of Corsica, the crystallisation being only more confused.

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* Sauss. § 892, 893. In § 899, mentioning granular felspar resembling granular quartz, but melting under the blow-pipe, Saussure adds, that in the beautiful granitel of Miage the felspar is also confusedly crystallised, but its white and sparry plates are evident; whereas here it is disguised in the form of a sandstone.

The following detached observations of this skilful Petralogist, may throw additional light on this subject. He supposes, § 159, that layers in zigzag probably arise from crystallisation, as they do in alabasters: and § 2227, he mentions layers in zigzag, in a granular lime-stone, mixed with mica, included between other veins which are parallel. Such layers, he adds, are not only found in crystallised rock, but in slate, which presents no appearance of crystallisation.

The ocular appearance is also found in other rocks, and Faujas has formed a series of this kind. Saussure indicates, § 161, mica slates often containing nodules of quartz, which, when cut across, appear like eyes. Sometimes they are as small as grains of millet; and others are two inches in diameter.

An ocular serpentine is also found in Corsica.

successful, so that the smallest pieces of this stone are extremely dear."*

This is truly surprising; and affords a further proof, if necessary, that the ingenious writers of France, with their clear heads and universal talents, never think it a duty, though it be indispensable, to read preceding accounts, that they may not repeat what is already well known; nor, above all, want the necessary knowledge of their subject. For to write on any science, without a complete knowledge of what has been already done, can in few instances contribute to its real advancement, which ought to be the chief end of every publication. The glacier of Miage, where so many beautiful varieties of this rock occur, cannot exceed two French leagues, or six British miles, from the little town of Cormayeur, on the river Doire; a distance surely not invincible for sledges or other conveyances: and any man of common enterprise might soon disperse these beautiful stones all over Europe. The fact is, that the passage of Saussure had totally escaped notice; and at present is only known to M. Sage, and a few other mineralogists, to whom it was indicated by the author.

It must not be forgotten that, in whatever

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* Brard, ii. 287.

HYPONOME I.

Ocular Miagite.

Micronome 1. With straight lines.

Micronome 2. With zigzag.

Micronome 3. Dendritic. This is the beautiful stone only found in the ruins of Rome, the *Nero e Bianco*, falsely called a granite.

NOME II. NIOLITE.

Faujas, in his late interesting work of geology, is the first who has described this singular rock, of which he has also published a coloured plate*. Description. His general description is that the base or ground consists of compact felspar, or felsite, of a brown colour, marbled with red; containing large spherical kernels of a flesh-coloured felspar, disposed in unequal rays or petals compressed upon each other, and diverging from the centre to the circumference. M. Rampasse, who brought lisation, of which numerous examples occur in the rocks and stones.

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* Paris, 1809, 8vo. ii. 245.

"To distinguish perfectly the interior organisation of these balls, and discover the manner in which they have been formed, it is necessary to cut, with iron wire and emery, some plates off the rock, so as to reach if possible the centre of the balls. They must then be slightly, but not highly, polished; the former being preferable for this kind of rock, as it renders its lineaments more clear and distinct. It is then evidently seen that the interior of these balls is solid, composed of compact felspar or felsite, of a white tinged with rose-colour, disposed in rays, or rather petals*; being flat imperfect crystals, terminating in sharp points, and diverging from the centre to the circumference. An envelope, about a line in thickness, of a lighter felsite, surrounds the globules; and, when divided by the saw, this envelope presents a circular line, which encloses and circumscribes each disk, serving as a kind of frame. The flowers thus displayed then produce a beautiful effect; and if it were possible to obtain large pieces of this rock, to saw in the form of a table, or turn in especially as Niolo is celebrated for various beautiful stones*.

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* *Petalum* means a thin plate; and was originally transferred from metals to the leaves of flowers in botany.

NOME III. CORSILITE.

This beautiful rock being also from Corsica, it was thought proper to propose a geographical name; and an island so eminent in the history of the rocks, well deserves this distinction.

Description. The rock now in question is a most beautiful mixture of greyish white, with the most delicate emerald green, which presents at the same time a satiny appearance. According to Werner, it is a mixture of felsite, or compact felspar, with actinote. Among the Italian artists, it has been long known by the name of *Verde di Corsica*; and Ferber, in his intelligent travels through Italy, 1772, informs us that "the *Verde di Corsica* is no marble, but a hard rock, striking fire with steel, of a white substance, with blackish or violet spots, and large grass-green sherl crystals, of a sweet colour. Large tables of this fine position is found at Serviere, above Briançon; but the diallage, or smaragdite, is black, yellow, bronze, grey, or silver-grey*. In other instances, the diallage has a metallic splendour; and the author has a specimen, which he received from Faujas, of a rock composed of serpentine and felspar, containing metallic diallage; and which was discovered by the Marquis de Cubieres, in the ruins of Pompeia; so that scarcely a beautiful rock can be said to have escaped the researches of the ancients: and the ruins of Rome are found to present about two hundred and fifty kinds, while those of London would only afford white marble.

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* Even in the large maps of Bacler Dalbe, Corsica must be imperfectly represented, for Niolo, and other names often mentioned are not to be found.

Smaragdite. The most complete account of the beautiful rock here called Corsilite, may be found in Patrin's ingenious system of mineralogy. The smaragdite, he observes, was formerly called *mother of emerald;* and sometimes appears to have passed even for emerald itself. This substance is a singular combination of many constituents, as may be judged by the following analysis, by Vauquelin, of the green and grey smaragdite; a name which might be retained as a compliment to its great observer, and as the green is its most usual and beautiful colour.

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* Brard, ii. 309.

Pelekine. **Lemanite.**

vided into two modes, *axinite* and *lemanite;* the former, as Haüy has quite a different axinite (a crystal from Oisans), might be called *pelekine*, from the Greek term for a battle-axe*; for it implies the green substance wrought in that form, from New Zealand, and from South America, where, as described by Condamine, it forms the real stone of the Amazons: a tribe idly so called on the Maranon, or river of Amazons, because the women upon one occasion defended themselves, while their husbands were absent in the chase. This substance has been analysed by Hoefner, who pretends to have found 38 of magnesia; but his authority is absolutely null: and this interesting substance remains a problem. The lemanite, which bears the same aspect, has been analysed by the younger Saussure, who discovered no magnesia, but a considerable proportion of argil†: and it is possible that even the green kind, for that colour often indicates the presence of magnesia, may, like the Iconite of the Chinese, analysed by Klaproth, contain no magnesia, but merely an unctuous argil. The lemanite receives its name from the lake Leman, commonly called that of Geneva, being sometimes of a greyish white, sometimes inclined to lilac; the smaragdite is disposed in small masses, which never exceed one or two inches in diameter, and is of a beautiful velvety grass green.

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* *Πελεκυς, bipennis.*

† Silex 44, Lime 4, Argil 30, Oxyd of iron 12,5, Soda 6,=96, 5.

"The base of the third picture is of a most extraordinary beauty; it is at least 4 feet long, and 28 or 30 inches in height. It is almost entirely composed of pure smaragdite, of a dark green, and yet of the most beautiful semi-transparency, which has a more imposing effect than if perfectly transparent, by the varieties which its mixture forms with the jad. The latter is in small quantity, but spread in the form of little undulating leaves, as thin as paper, and as white as milk. As the stone has, with much ingenuity, been cut obliquely to the planes of these leaves, their extremities are seen on the surface, and in proportion to their depth in the smaragdite, they assume, by imperceptible degrees, the beautiful green colour; which, added to their undulating and festooned form, and their disposition in little masses near each other, makes them resemble in a singular manner the beautiful foliage of trees, and, in other parts, the waves of the sea gently agitated."*

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* Patrin, Min. i. 163.

this as the most beautiful of all. It is found near Autun, in the department of the Saone and the Loire, and particularly at Marmagne. There is also found, in the environs of Autun, a white graphic granitel, with little crystals of grey quartz. Champeaux, an engineer of the mines of France, discovered the rose-coloured kind of Marmagne, of which small tables might be formed.

Sites.

That of Corsica is of a yet paler rose-colour than that of Autun, while the crystals of quartz are larger and more distant from each other. There are also some specks of bronze-mica, which do not occur in that of Marmagne; but it is capable of an equal polish.

That of Scotland is of little importance, as the crystals of quartz are distant, and not sufficiently apparent. It is found near Portsoy.

That of Siberia appears in two distant sites: the Uralian mountains to the north of Ekaterinburg, and in Daouria near the river Amur; the felspar being of a yellowish, or reddish white, laminar, and glistening*. It is charged with crystals of smoky quartz, which may be compared to Runic letters; and is accompanied with found of an almost entire blue; but that it was extremely rare to discover pieces as large as one's head, in which the blue should generally predominate over the white and the grey. As those blocks, which I had seen, appeared to me rolled, I asked if they had been found in the beds of rivers; and was informed they were taken from the quarry, and that they were rounded by their friction against each other in the carriage; but that sometimes, however, they were found by chance in torrents, and these were of the most brilliant blue.

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* *Chatoyant*, derived from the eye of the cat; it has scarcely a corresponding term in English. Refulgent?

"Laxmann, an academician of Petersburg, who resided several years in Eastern Siberia, said he found rolled blocks of lapis upon the shore of the lake Baïkal, in a kind of gulf, to the southward, called Koultouk; but that he in vain sought for the mountain from which these blocks had been detached, and that he could get no information from the Buret Tartars, who inhabit this savage country. I have a specimen of this lapis, which is exactly similar to that of Bucharia.

"Boetius de Boot has given a long account of the manner of preparing ultramarine. This operation consists chiefly in the repeated calcination of the lapis, and plunging it in vinegar: he adds, that the oftener these calcinations are repeated, the finer the colour. That of the first

Sapphires of the ancients. The lazulite appears to have been the sapphire of Pliny, which was spotted with gold; and ancient engraved gems have been found of this substance. Wad mentions two Egyptian monuments of this stone; being little statues, an inch or two in height.

Werner's lazulite. The lazulite of Werner, found at Varau in Austria, and in Salzia or Salzburg, is a different substance, recently arranged with the blue felsite of Krieglach in Stiria. But Haüy regards it as distinct*. The lazulite here described, is the *lazurstein* of Werner.

HYPONOME I.

With deep blue lazulite.

HYPONOME II.

With whitish.

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* Haüy Tableau, 225.

yet been observed in the parent rock, which is only inferred to be a kind of granite. Another rock containing opaline felspar, but of far inferior beauty, has been recently observed in Norway. The felspar is conjoined with a very hard reddish substance, which has been inferred to be quartz.

First appearance. In the Bee, a periodical paper, published at Edinburgh in 1793, by Dr. Anderson, there is a curious account of precious stones by Dr. Guthrie, physician to the corps of Noble Cadets at Petersburg, presenting some interesting particulars concerning those found in Siberia. A correspondent of Dr. Anderson's has added a letter concerning the first appearance of the Labrador stone; which, being little known, shall be subjoined.

"The coast of Labrador is a cold inhospitable country, bordering upon Hudson's Bay; and was granted by George II. to a religious sect of people, called the Moravians, who solicited and obtained it, in order to convert to their way of thinking the few inhabitants who had settled along the sea coast; but they soon discovered a more material advantage in cultivating the fur-trade, which they do at present to a very considerable extent. About ten years ago, another unlooked-for source of wealth started up, and cimens yet discovered are about three feet in circumference; and all over one continued gleam of colour. I have seen many blocks of it greatly larger than the above, but they had only spots of colour here and there, thinly scattered. The first quantity that was exposed in Edinburgh, was in the year 1790, in a ware-room on the south bridge, by one Shaw, from London, a native of Aberdeenshire, who, I think, keeps a shop of natural history in the Strand; and was the same person who sold that wonder of nature, the Elastic Stone, to the Honourable Lord Gardenstone, and which his lordship, with his usual goodness, sent to the ingenious Mr. Weir, and now forms a part of his elegant Museum in Prince's Street, New Town, Edinburgh. Mr. Shaw again paid us a visit so late as November 1792, when he exhibited some most brilliant specimens of Labrador spar; particularly one of fine, extremely bright, and variegated colours; one pretty large, of the scarce fire-colour with the purple tinge; and one with gold, blue, and green shades: the first was sold to the celebrated Dr. Black; the two last are in the elegant collection at Morningside. This beautiful stone, when analysed, is found to contain a portion of calcareous matter, and some particles of silver

Noble Labrador, or opaline felsp

Micronome 1. Norwegian blue.

NOME VIII. KOLLANI

Description. This rock, which, if not the first, the first in beauty, consists of round bles, or rather crystals, of various siliceous cement, sometimes approac parent quartz, at others itself a bric fragments or crystals. The most lour of the pebbles is grey, follo brown, black, dark blue; the mo yellow and red; the rarest being The cement is also of various colo transparent quartz to the opake red of a metallic yellow, perhaps from pyrites; at other times tinged with v nine specimens of flint, chiefly yellow or spotted, which must greatly resemble to those in the Kollanite; and which, as he observes, approach exceedingly near to chalcedony. Many may also be said to be agatised; being disposed, like agate, in concentric lines of different tints and colours. It is indispensable that a new term be applied to this intermediate substance; and the Greek name of Chalite is proposed, from the word for flint, but which has not yet appeared in mineralogy*.

Chalite.

To arrange these pebbles with common flints, would only occasion a confusion of ideas. They belong to an intermediate substance, between flint and agate, which indeed Haüy has arranged together, under the name of Quartz agate. That flint which is found near Paris with the layers and beauty of an onyx, and that called menilite, might also be classed as different structures of this nobler kind of flint; which, as silex is from the Latin, might be sought, as before stated, in a higher source, the Greek, and denominated chalite. Like chalcedony or agate,

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* Χαλιξ. The Hebrew, it is said, is *chalamish*. Readers versed in that language, may cnosult Deut. VIII. 15. Ps. CXIV. 8. Is. V. 28. L. 7. Ezek. III. 9.

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Woodward also says, that at A
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called *pudding-stone*, is very frequ
masses weigh near a ton; nay,
mass of three tons, at Corner Ha
hamstead; and that labourers abo
speak of masses of a similar size*.

Sites. From personal inquiries and ob
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found at the ancient and venerabl
Albans, where masses often occur
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about 20 miles E. and W. and about 10 N. and S. which may be indicated as the peculiar district of the Kollanite, or precious pudding-stone.

Shells. Shells, or strong and marked impressions, have been found in the very centre of masses of Kollanite, which with its superincumbence on chalk (where however it only forms detached masses, like those of siliceous sand-stone, or granular quartz), have been regarded as proofs of its recent formation.

On Barnard Heath, near St. Albans, along with the masses of pudding-stone, which themselves always appear to have been rolled, may also be found bowlders of black jasper veined with white quartz, the siliceous schistus of Werner, with others of red jasper, of granular quartz, and even of rock crystal; so that the position would argue little, while the shells alone would evince it a secondary substance. They are commonly small chamites; and, it is believed, have never been discovered in the finest kinds. Mr. Parkinson* has observed, that the numerous pebbles found in gravel-pits, &c. have seldom been rolled; but, on the contrary, their present forms are precisely those which they at first de-the precise epoch of their creation; and thus a few shells might appear even in substances styled primary.

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* Organic Remains, i. 283.

Origin of pebbles.

That patient and careful observer, Saussure*, has established as an axiom, that pebbles originally so formed, and not produced by attrition, may be distinguished by their concentric layers, or by a nodule, whose form corresponds with that of the stone: thus what he calls *petrosilex à ecorce*, or with a rind, is a flint found in natural nodules, the rind being from six lines to an inch in thickness, of a grey almost opake; whilst the concentric kernel is of a fawn-colour, and semi-transparent†.

With regard to rolled pebbles, the study of which he has particularly recommended, as perhaps more essential to the theory of the earth than that of the rocks themselves, Saussure has remarked, and the observation has since been repeatedly confirmed, that the pebbles of the vales among mountains are derived from the rocks of which these mountains consist; but the pebbles of the large open plains seem as if dropped from the sky, no parent rocks appearing in a space of hundreds, and even of thousands of miles‡. It would seem, from many circum-

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[*] § 204.

[†] § 1566.

[‡] § 717.

commonly employed for the purpose of paving court-yards of houses, and the streets of small towns. Common gravel is too familiar to need any description. Pebbles of the smallest dimensions constitute coarse sand.

" The gravel immediately round London appears to consist almost entirely of the black flint met with in the neighbouring chalk strata: the pebbles are in general very uniformly worn, and have to a greater or less extent lost the characteristic black colour of the flint, from which they are derived; but sufficiently correspond with it to shew the identity of their nature.

" The gravel round about Windsor and Maidenhead consists also, in a great measure, of the flint of the surrounding chalk-hills; very much discoloured, but not much worn. It appears, however, that that part of this gravel which is nearest the surface is not of the nature of flint, but in its texture resembles a highly indurated sand-stone: and it is observed that these pebbles are much larger than the flint pebbles; and, though considerably harder, are much more uniformly rounded. They have probably, therefore, been conveyed from a greater distance; and judging from their relative situation, for they are found nearest the surface, they have been deposited more recently than the flint. It commonly employed for the purpose of paving court-yards of houses, and the streets of small towns. Common gravel is too familiar to need any description. Pebbles of the smallest dimensions constitute coarse sand.

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Patrin's account. "The most celebrated pudding-stone, and which on account of its beauty obtains a place in all cabinets of mineralogy, is found in some rivers of Scotland, in small rolled masses, which are seldom more than five or six inches in diameter. It is generally known by the name of the pudding-stone, or pebble of England.

"It is formed by an assemblage of small siliceous stones, the interstices of which are filled by gravel and very fine quartzy sand. The whole is united by a siliceous gluten, of an opake white colour, which is not easily perceptible without the aid of a lens.

"The pebbles which compose this beautiful pudding-stone, are at most of the size of a walnut, and oftener of that of a bean or an almond. They are coloured with various tints, but with a remarkable singularity; for these colours are disposed in concentric layers. It seems then that these pebbles are little flints, which have been formed such as they are, but in another matrix variety of their colours, and the vivacity of their polish, are infinitely agreeable to the eye."*

Brard's account is as follows†: "The pudding-stone of England is composed of little pebbles round, oval, or elliptic, of the size of an olive, brown, grey, or yellow, imbedded in a cement of a grey, or of a chamois colour.

"This pudding-stone, which is highly esteemed in jewellery, is found in rolled fragments in certain rivers in Scotland.

"Although the pebbles, and still less the cement of this pudding, be not of a very fine paste, it nevertheless takes a most beautiful polish. It is wrought in many works of decoration; but is not fit for small jewellery, such as earrings, necklaces, &c. It is used with more advantage in making boxes, socles, handles of knives, etuis, &c."

He then proceeds to describe the pudding of Chantilly, which consists of far larger pebbles, of a deep yellow, bordered with a bluish black, in a cement of quartzose sandstone. A finer kind is found near Chartres, in the department of the Eure and Loire, composed of very small will appear the less surprising when we consider the following description, just published by the learned Dr. Kidd, professor of chemistry in the University of Oxford, in his account of what he calls pebble-stone*.

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* iii. 350.

† Traité des pierres precieuses, i. 122. Prais 1808, 2 vols. 8vo.

Kidd's account.

"This term is applicable to a numerous class of rocks, &c. consisting of pebbles of various sizes and colours; which are irregularly connected together, either with or without an intermediate substance; and it is presumed that the cemented particles are pebbles, or have acquired their rounded form by attrition, from their uniform smoothness.

"One of the most striking varieties of pebble-stone very commonly occurs scattered in large masses over the vale of Berkshire; it consists of numerous oval pebbles, of reddish black flint, very much resembling raisins when swelled by boiling, cemented together by means of indurated sand, of a brownish white colour. The whole appearance of the mass has given rise to the term plumb-pudding-stone, in this country; and the resemblance that gave rise to the term is so remarkable, that it cannot fail to strike the mind upon the first view. The term has been very generally adopted by foreign mineralogists;

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* Outlines of Mineralogy, 1809. App. p. 21.

curs in rolled fragments in the bed of the Eske, near Rosslyn Castle: it consists of numerous differently coloured particles, some resembling red jasper, very compactly aggregated without any intermediate substance."

This last may either be a spotted jasper, or a jasper bricia.

Accompanies chalk.

The coarse pudding-stone accompanies at intervals the vast chalk stratum of England, whose undulating outline, from S. W. to N. E. may be computed to about 600 miles. This coarse pudding-stone consists of common flint pebbles, sometimes united by an argillaceous cement, sometimes by a ferruginous, at others by an arenaceous rendered coherent by oxyd of iron. The red gravel which affords such an elegant contrast with verdure, and is well known for its binding or coherent quality, approaches nearly to the latter kind; and masses of such pudding-stone are frequent in gravel-pits, even in the neighbourhood of London. A large mass may be seen in the lane, which ascends from Kentish Town to Kenwood, to use the orthography of Lord Mansfield, derived from its *ken*, or wide prospect.

But the precious kind, which has acquired such celebrity all over Europe, for its beauty, Alps, whose vertical position led to his theory of *refoulements*.

A shell of the cockle kind, as already mentioned, has in one rare and solitary instance been observed in one of the pebbles; and in another, imbedded in the cement of the stone; which might, in the language of Werner, indicate that it is a transitive, if not a secondary rock. But this would not argue against its coetaneous formation, any more than the shells found in jasper, and many siliceous substances.

The varieties of this curious rock are almost infinite; and it is diversified with almost every shade of colour, except perhaps pure blue and green, the former of which does not occur even in the finest jaspers; but the latter, which is common in that substance, may probably be discovered when persons of real skill observe the sites of this remarkable rock*. Agate only presents single beautiful pebbles, of a more fine and waxy appearance, and often with more outlines; but here numerous pebbles display such various accidents, that in a large polished slab no two would be found exactly alike. Some have the by it, while those on either side are in perpendicular or contrary directions.

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* I am since informed, from undoubted authority, that the green exists.

8. A specimen, about two inches and a half by two, containing about thirty small pebbles, of the most beautiful tints of red, black, brown, white, and cream colour, mottled and zoned in every conceivable form, in a granular transparent cement, which however inclining to pale red, affords not the strong contrast which a fawn-colour would have produced.

9. A piece, about four inches by three, presenting on a fawn-colour ground only ten or twelve pebbles, of the middle size; one of the purest uniform carnelian, with the usual black zone, and another of a fine purple red, or wine colour; while the others, chiefly red, are variously agatised and mottled. A singular accident in this beautiful specimen is, that a large red nodule is split in various directions, yet the fragments perfectly preserve their position, the chief rents being accurately filled by the fawn-coloured cement.

10. A mass, about eight inches in diameter. In the heart of a yellowish brown pebble, with a broad black border, and about three-fourths of an inch in diameter, is the fair impression of a little chamite, about a quarter of an inch in diameter.

small lines of purple; and one may be styled agate, or chalcedony, being white delicately tinctured with red and yellow.

16. Fine red pebbles, in a cement of a darker red. The contrast is not however sufficiently strong; and the lapidaries in this case say, that the pudding has too much wine.

17. Dark grey and black pebbles, in a cement of a delicate dove-colour.

18. Brown, yellow, and red pebbles, in a cement of an ash grey, which only admits a dull earthy polish, while the pebbles are of great brightness.

19. Very small pebbles, of almost every colour, in a bright yellow cement. Exquisitely beautiful.

20. A pebble, about two and a half inches by one and a half, which is not only a pebble but a kollanite, as it contains distinct agatised pebbles*.

When the original sites of this stone are examined by persons of real skill, it is probable that a vast number of interesting varieties will be discovered. Meanwhile it is hoped the reader will not blame some degree of prolixity concerncular large granular masses, so that the topaz rock appears large granular in the great: a kind of structure which is termed slaty granular. The drusy cavities, that sometimes occur between these concretions, frequently contain regular crystallised topaz and quartz; sometimes also schorl and lithomarge, of the same colour as the topaz.

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* Those only are described which are in the author's collection, or which he has himself seen. The rare green probably contains green pebbles in a yellow cement.

"2. Its stratification is uncommonly distinct.

"3. Its geognostic position has not been hitherto satisfactorily ascertained. It appears to lie on gneiss, and under clay slate.

"4. It is a very rare rock, having been hitherto found only in one place in Germany, near the town of Auerbach, in the Saxon part of Voigtland, where it forms a mountain mass of considerable extent, and is there known by the name of Schneckenstein. A rock, composed of topaz, beryl, quartz, and lithomarge, occurs in the mountain of Odontschelon, and in the neighbourhood of Mursinsk, in Siberia, which resembles topaz rock, and is suspected to be the same with that of Auerbach. The schorl-rock of Cornwall is probably very intimately connected with topaz rock."*

It is truly surprising, that what are called the geognostic relations of so remarkable a rock

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* Jameson's Min. iii. 141.

NOME XI. BERYL ROCK.

[illegible] discovered in France, near Limoges, [illegible]. It had been used in paving the [illegible], and is seldom of a good colour, being generally of a greyish white, though some specimens offer a tint of green. It is however rather a [illegible]stone, though found in large masses, as it runs through the middle of a vein of quartz in a granitic region*.

NOME XII. GARNET ROCK.

The red garnet, of which this beautiful rock is chiefly composed, contains from 20 to 41 parts of iron, according to analyses of Klaproth and Vauquelin. The green garnet is even sometimes fused as an ore of iron.

In his System of Mineralogy, Cronstedt regarded the garnet as entitled to a peculiar place in the rank of earths; a singularity which would seem to show that he had a distant view of the

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* Faujas, Geologie. Paris 1809, vol. ii. part i. p. 208. See particularly Journal des Mines, v. 641. The analysis of Vauquelin found the same ingredients as in the emerald.

URE II.

NO
erspersed with siderite, felsp
This w brown mica, from Portsoy
by le I
high essential to this rock that the gar
g ould be dispersed throughout; otherw
and common garnets are sometimes
mingled in mica slate, that the rock mi
under this denomination.

The garnet trap of Saussure, §2258, of a brown green colour, composed of a mixture of partic of steatite, fibrous hornblende, and mica, includi many little garnets of a dull red?

NOME XIII. SHORL ROCK.

This rock is chiefly composed of the comm black shorl*, the black tourmaline of Haü which, according to Klaproth, contains 22 pa of iron. It is common in granite, gneiss, a other primitive rocks; but is sometimes found form a rock by itself, or mixed with quartz.

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[*] The word is original, and not derived from the town of Shorl as appears from the term *Shirl*, used by the Cornish miners in same sense.

NOME XV. MARBLE OF MAJORCA.

This rock is of a singular and anomalous structure, as the shape of the spots, or concretions, resembles that of almonds. It is black and white, and takes a very fine polish. The natives call it *amandrado**. It is found near Alaro, in the island of Majorca.

NOME XVI. MARBLE OF CAMPAN.

This marble, so well known in France, is found in the Pyrenees, not far from Bagneres. It is either red or green; and both colours even occur in a small specimen; but it is greatly contaminated with argil, as before mentioned. It is ranked among the anomalous rocks, because it often presents a singular structure, which may be called guttular, being disposed in oblong drops like icicles. These uncommon forms sometimes become important in a geological point of view. Ramond observed another marble in that vicinity, analogous to that of Campan, " that is to say, with a white base, veined with red and

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* Laborde's Spain, iii. 448.

Truxillo, in beds mingled with quartz, and in such abundance as to form a hill. It was known for a long time to the inhabitants by its property of yielding a phosphoric light. In 1788, Proust first indicated its nature, in the *Journal de Physique**.

NOME XVIII. GLOBULAR ROCK.

This anomaly was discovered by Saussure, in a hill not far from Hyeres, in the South of France. As his important work has never been translated, an extract may be satisfactory.

" On my ascent I observed, in the calcareous rock of the mountain, a hemisphere of 15 or 18 inches diameter, entirely composed of calcareous spar, disposed in concentric layers, and each of these layers formed by an assemblage of needles, converging towards the centre of the mass. I at first thought it was accidental; but, as I proceeded, I saw with much surprise that the whole mountain, to its very summit, is composed of balls of spar, whose structure is nearly the same. Their bulk varies: the largest being two or three feet in diameter; the smallest, two or three

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* Min. i. 585.

NOME XIX. BARYTIC ROCK.

Mr. Kirwan informs us, that Hoepfner discovered a whole mountain in Swisserland, composed of quartz, barytes, and mica partly compounded with shorl. Mr. Kirwan calls this kind of barytes, *baroselenite*; because it resembles selenite, or gypsum crystallised in plates. It is the plane, laminar, heavy spar of Werner, in which the most common colours are white and red. In the curious rock here mentioned, the barytes was of a flesh red colour; but it must not be forgotten that Hoepfner's observations and analyses are not of the first authority; and his barytes may be found to be a felspar.

In the mineralogy of the department of the Loire, there is the following account of a singular rock near Ambierle, a village near three leagues N. W. of Roanne*.

" There is there seen a rock, situated between two little valleys, on the eastern side of the hill. This rock, which separates these two valleys, is a disordered mass, composed of fluor and barytes, sometimes mixed, sometimes in separate and distinct parts, but always in intimate contact, and lowed in their deposition the unequal angles o the cubes, which served them as a base. Some of these fluors have shown indications of the oxyd of cobalt, others of manganese in stalagmites Only one piece of fluor has been found traversed by the same pitch-stone: there are also found but rarely, small cavities which contain little crystals of fluor, barytes, and quartz.

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* Journal des Mines, iv. 127, by Passinges.

"It may be judged by the quantity of fragments scattered around this rock, and in the surrounding vineyards, that it has been of a fa greater height, and that it has been injured and shattered from many causes, but especially th cultivation of the neighbouring vineyards; there are even large open slits, which show that it ha been shaken. It has even been attempted t make mill-stones with the barytes, of whicl there are large masses, but the attempt did no succeed. All these fragments display much more quartz, mingled with the fluor and barytes than the rock itself; which, nevertheless, may be said to form a kind of pudding-stone, as presenting adherent mixtures of various kinds.

"The environs of this remarkable hill show in the hollow roads, veins of barytes amidst fluor The rocks of the adjacent mountain are of primitive grey granite, consisting of felspar, quartz and mica. It is rather soft, but is used for th

Of Navarre. "These hills," says he, "are composed of limestone mingled with gypsum; the chain extending more than two leagues. In the most elevated part is situated the village of Valtierra, on a slope towards the middle of which is found a mine of rock-salt. It may be about 400 paces long, and 80 wide. The salt is contained in a space of about five feet elevation.

"I examined," he adds, "with attention those beds of salt; I compared them with the layers of earth and gypsum in which it is imbedded; I found the outside layer to be composed of gypsum; and immediately afterwards I met with two inches of white salt, succeeded by two inches of stony salt and a layer of earth. I found others alternately composed of earth and salt, to the very bottom of the mine, which is of gypsum, undulated like the other layers. The layers of saline rock are of a dusky blue, those of salt are white.

"This mine," adds Bowles, "is considerably elevated above the sea; for you ascend continually all the way from Bayonne."

The second hill is far more memorable, and is even very extraordinary: it is that of Cardona, in Catalonia, 16 leagues to the N. W. of Barcelona, and a few leagues from the Pyrenees.

Of Cardona. "The village of Cardona," says he, "is situ-

Of Peru.

those in Spain and Africa, are in Peru; and are thus described by Ulloa, who says they are situated at the surprising height of 10 or 12,000 feet, on the grand chain of the Andes.

"The highest part of Peru," says Ulloa, "which seems to be a depot of minerals, has also mines of salt. It is found in hard blocks, and continuous like the rock. The exterior form of this salt strikes at first sight; for it resembles a stone of a dull violet colour, strewed with rays of jasper.

"These mines of salt are found nearly all over the country; and what is most worthy of remark, is its extreme hardness, its colour, and that it should be in those mountains equally as high as those which yield silver or mercury, which is certainly extraordinary."*

Mr. Kirwan has treated this subject with his usual mineralogic erudition.

Kirwan's account.

"Many mountains, entirely consisting of salt, have been discovered. The salt mountain of Cardona, in Valentia, is from 4 to 500 feet high, and about three miles in circumference. Bowles, 406. Fortis mentions several in Calabria, attended with some of gypsum. Several in the States of Algiers and Tunis are mentioned by Shaw, p.

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* Mem. i. 352.

It must not be forgotten that a mountain of salt has recently been discovered on the western side of the river Missouri, in North America.

In the salt mines of England, Pictet observed a singular structure, somewhat resembling that of basaltic columns. In those of Poland, a similar polygonal structure has also been observed, but was supposed to arise from large globules compressed on all sides by others. Further considerations on rock-salt may be found in many mineralogical treatises; and are scarcely requisite in a work of this nature*.

HYPONOME I.

Entire saline rock, blue, red, white.

Micronome 1. Mixed with gypsum.

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* The numerous and prodigious rocks of ice in the polar regions, might afford an interesting description; but are foreign to this work.

mer being generally black, as at Sefeld, in Tyrol.

The grandest appearance of that nature is at Baku, on the western side of the Caspian Sea; whence it is supposed that this substance was brought to Constantinople, where it formed the chief ingredient of the noted composition called the Grecian fire; which, burning with increased intensity under water, became a most formidable instrument against an inimical fleet. From the description given by Hanway, it would appear that the rock is limestone. His account of this singular phenomenon deserves to be here repeated.

Naptha of Baku.

"The earth round this place, for above two miles, has this surprising property, that, by taking up two or three inches of the surface, and applying a live coal, the part which is so uncovered immediately takes fire, almost before the coal touches the earth: the flame makes the soil hot, but does not consume it, nor affect what is near it with any degree of heat. Any quantity of this earth carried to another place, does not produce this effect. Not long since, eight horses were consumed by this fire, being under a roof where the surface of the ground was turned up, and by some accident took flame.

is covered with it for leagues together. When the weather is thick and hazy, the springs boil up the higher; and the naptha often takes fire on the surface of the earth, and runs in a flame into the sea in great quantities, to a distance almost incredible. In clear weather the springs do not boil up above two or three feet; in boiling over, this oily substance makes so strong a consistency, as by degrees almost to close the mouth of the spring; sometimes it is quite closed, and forms hillocks that look as black as pitch; but the spring which is resisted in one place, breaks out in another. Some of the springs, which have not been long opened, form a mouth of 8 or 10 feet diameter.

"The people carry the naptha, by troughs, into pits or reservoirs; drawing it off from one to another, leaving in the first reservoir the water, or the heavier part with which it is mixed when it issues from the spring. It is unpleasant to the smell, and used mostly amongst the poorer sort of the Persians, and other neighbouring people, as we use oil in lamps, or to boil their victuals; but it communicates a disagreeable taste. They find it burn best with a small mixture of ashes: as they find it in great abundance, every family is well supplied. They keep it at a small distance from their houses, in earthen vessels, under appetite, especially if a small quantity is also drank."*

The justly celebrated Kempfer had visited these remarkable springs in the end of the seventeenth century; and Gmelin, in the eighteenth century, 1773, has added little to the account of Hanway, except that the soil is a coarse marl, mixed with sand, and effervescing with acids. There are many other wells in an adjoining peninsula; and the revenue arising from this uncommon product, to the khan of Baku, was computed at forty thousand rubles.

Werner rather doubts the existence of pure and limpid rock oil, and unites naptha with petrol: the purer kind indeed seems to occur only in small quantities. The mineral tar of Colebrook Dale is obtained from a sandstone: and Williams has observed many bituminous rocks in Scotland. Bituminous shale and marl are not uncommon; but the whole subject requires and deserves further illustration.

HYPONOME I.

Limestone with naptha, or with petrol.

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* Hanway's Travels, i. 263.

"Natural sulphur commonly occurs in masses in gypsum, limestone, and marl. Near Artern it occurs along with honey-stone and bituminou wood.

"It is sometimes found in veins that travers primitive rocks; in veins of copper pyrites, tha traverse granite at Schwartzwald in Swabia, in Siberia, in the gold mines of Catherineburg and in leadglance veins in the Altaian mountains.

"It occurs also in nests in limestone, in Ireland; in sandstone, at Budoshegy, in Transylvania; along with red manganese-ore, at Kapnik; and with red orpiment, at Felsobanya.

"Very lately, the celebrated and enterprising Prussian traveller, Von Humboldt, communicated to the National Institute of France, a note, in which he mentions his having discovered, in the province of Quito, between Alausi and Tibsan, a bed composed of sulphur and quartz, in a mountain of mica slate; and also great quantitie of sulphur in primitive porphyry."*

HYPONOME I.

Porphyry with sulphur.

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* "Annales de Museum National, cahier 17." Jameson Mi ii. 40.

called mineralised, as being mixed with sulphur*.

This father of modern mineralogy has more minutely described the hill of Taberg, in Smoland, in the southern part of Sweden; which has been mentioned by Born, as being 400 feet in height, and about a league in circuit, in the midst of a sandy plain; and solely consisting of granular black iron, cemented by quartz into a solid mass, extremely compact and hard. Bergman's description follows.

Bergman's account of Taberg.

" Among the most singular mines of iron, may be reckoned that of Taberg, in Smoland: it extends from the N. N. W. to the S. S. E. rising gently on the northern side to a considerable height; then sinks a little, and again rises, forming at last a very high crest, and terminating in an abrupt cliff towards the river Mansarpa, above which its summit is elevated 420 feet to the S. E. and on the other side of the river is a corresponding height; to the E. and S. W. there is a succession of heights, equally separated from the mountain of Taberg by a river which runs through a valley a quarter of a mile long. Beyond the lake Wetter, in the environs of Jonkoping and of Taberg, as far as the district of

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* Journal des Mines, No. 16, p. 58, 23.

Oesbo, the soil is a movable sand. Near the cliff are large collections of ferruginous ore, without any intermixture of stones; some being several feet thick. They are placed in horizontal layers, separated by strata of earth, and ascend about three-fourths of this part of the mountain. The crest of Taberg, and probably the whole mountain, is filled with narrow parallel veins, which are generally vertical, following the direction of the mountain; the richest are seldom more than a quarter of an ell in thickness*, and are known in that part by the name of iron-bands (*Iaernbands*): they contain a blackish brown and shining ore, which yields thirty-two pounds and a half in the hundred weight. The common ore has a particular appearance: it seems smoked, and has no lustre; it gives 31 per cent. That which is called ribbon ore, or pied ore, has layers of white spar between its plates, and thus shows in the fracture alternate rays of white and black; it yields 21 per cent. The veins of this latter kind are exposed on the western declivity of the mountain. The effect which this enormous mass of ore presents, is well calculated to excite curiosity and wonder; though it is not the only example of the kind that nature offers to us."[*]

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* The Swedish ell is only two feet.

Patrin's remarks. Patrin has observed on this description, that Taberg, far from being an irregular mass of ore, is on the contrary a mountain of a most regular structure; the arrects, or uprights[†], having their planes parallel to its great axis, as is generally observed in primitive mountains.

The same able observer, who passed many years in Siberia, thus proceeds:

"The mines of iron in veins, which I observed in Siberia, in the Ural mountains, have a singular resemblance to those of Sweden.

"The two principal ones are those of Blagodat and of Keskanar, both upon the eastern side of the Uralian chain; the first thirty, and the other fifty, leagues to the north of Ekaterinburg.

Blagodat. "Blagodat, like Taberg, is a mountain about 400 feet in height, in which the upright veins run from north to south, as the chain itself.

"The summit is almost entirely composed of ore, for an extent of 200 fathoms in length and

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[*] Ib. 67.

[†] These terms are hazarded, as already stated, to supply a defect in mineralogical language, lamented by Saussure and many other writers; the expressions of *vertical beds*, or *vertical layers*, being highly objectionable.

0 in breadth. The veins, which are several
t and even fathoms thick, are only separated
layers of schistus, and a kind of trap, which
scarcely so thick.

‘ The ore is of the black compact kind, much
ected by the magnet; it yields 60 per cent. in
ion, and affords most excellent iron.

“ There are annually extracted from this
ountain two millions of pounds, or about seven
ndred thousand quintals of ore.

Keskanar.

“ The mountain of Keskanar has a similar
ucture; it is famous for the loadstones it has
oduced; blocks of 40 pounds weight of it
ve been found, which would carry two hun-
ed weight; the small loadstones had in pro-
ortion a much greater strength; some have
een seen which would carry twenty-five times
eir own weight. This magnet is mixed with a
onsiderable quantity of greenish hornblende,
hich is dispersed through it in small nests some
nes in diameter, and which is very glistening
hen the stone is polished.

“ There are also loadstones in the mountain
’ Blagodat, and one of its summits is entirely
mposed of them, but they have a singular de-
ct: when they are detached from the moun-
in, their poles multiply and intermingle, and
ey become useless.

"The same summit offers another singulari which is, that it is crossed by a vein of copp I have brought away a piece of this loadsto which was found imbedded in this vein, a which is entirely covered with mountain bl and green. Since it has been in my collecti amongst other loadstones, it has acquired a p larity rather more regular. It seems not imp sible, with some pains, to re-establish that of t large pieces, that may be obtained from th mountain.

"The Altaian mountains are also in seve places rich in iron-ore; but it is not wrought, account of the distance.

"In that part of those mountains which t river Irtish crosses, when it quits the lake Za san, I have seen, on the left bank of that riv perpendicular mountains more than six hundr feet in height, entirely composed of iron-or They are of ochre-coloured schistus, the thi layers of which are exactly perpendicular, an alternate with layers of compact iron-ore.

"Amongst the immense wrecks of the mountains, I saw several pieces of large grain loadstone, which contained nothing heteroge ous, and with a complete metallic appearanc I brought away some specimens.

"It is not only in the frozen regions th

This subject cannot be quitted without the observation, that there seems a most manifest indication of MIND and DESIGN, or in other words of a great Creator, in the peculiar distribution of this metal in the northern parts of Europe; where He knew, to whom all times are present, that it would be necessary for the industry of the inhabitants. In like manner the increased thickness of the fur, or of the feathery down of animals, can scarcely be attributed to climate or chance: not to add another simple observation, but which doe not seem to have been made, namely, the superio size and strength of the female, when compare with the male, solely among the birds of prey; a it was necessary that she should both protect an feed her voracious offspring.

of the transition has given rise to the denomination, which implies that the substance has leaped, as it were, from one to another.

These rocks are extremely interesting in the study of Geology; and the learned reader will observe, that this treatise forms a gradual introduction to that sublime science, or rather study; for, even in the German sense of Geognosy, or knowledge of the shell of the earth, it can scarcely ever be supposed to arrive at the perfection of a science.

Distinct from Adherent.

Great care must be exerted not to confound the rocks which are merely adherent, or composite, with those that really graduate into another. Saussure, in speaking of a Russian traveller, says, that he would have boldly asserted that a roasting goose graduates into the spit. Thus some theorists have conceived that lime becomes flint, or flint graduates into lime, from the mere mixture of the particles near the line of their junction. The most proper and undoubted graduations occur only among

NOME I. SIDERITE AND BASALT.*

This transition may be observed in the Egyptian monuments, and is not uncommon in nature, when, in the German language, the massive hornblende rock passes into grunstein; or, in other words, becomes interspersed with small crystals of felspar; the common basalt of the ancients.

Siderite with basalt, from Egypt.
The same, from Mount Sinai.
The same, from the Alps.

NOME II. BASALTIN AND BASALT, OR BASALTON.

Of Meisner.

That is, in the German dialect, Basalt passing into Grunstein. Daubuisson observed this transition, in great perfection, at Mount Meisner, in Hessia, which rises like a colossus above the other heights of that country.† The mass is of shelly limestone; towards the top there are tars, sarcophages, made of black stones, which have all the characters attributed to the ancient basalts, and which have preserved that name; and I can say, with positive certainty, that none of them is volcanic." Dolomieu then proceeds to state that some of them are siderite, or massive hornblende; but the most common are a kind of granite, in which the siderite so predominates that the mass appears black, though it be associated with a white felspar, of which the grains are so small, or so interlaced with the scales of siderite, that it is difficult to discern them; especially as the felspar itself sometimes appears black, because it is transparent. He adds that it happens sometimes that a greater quantity of felspar imparts to the rock the appearance of a real granite; that is, as Daubuisson observes, a real grunstein.

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* The vague words *with* or *and* are used, because it cannot be positively affirmed which graduates into the other.

† Sur les basaltes de la Saxe, p. 59.

This passage of Basaltin into the real Basalt of the ancients, is one of the most remarkable in Geology; and particularly interesting to the accurate and scientific observer. It seems, however, to be somewhat surprising that, while these substances are often found to coalesce, the Egyptians did not prefer the close grained and uniform basaltin to their coarser basalt. Siderite is also found in Mount Sinai, and perhaps in the eastern chain between Egypt and the Red Sea;

but as the ancient authors are unanimous that the basalt came from Abyssinia, it probably occurred under the appearance of columns, of too small a diameter to be employed in architecture or monuments. It is to be regretted that the mountains of Abyssinia have not been explored by any geologist, as the transcendent beauty of the emerald-green granite alone might invite a research into that interesting region.

NOME III. BASALTIN WITH PORPHYRY.

Basaltin being the base of porphyry, it is natural to expect many examples of this kind. Among others, near the village of Renaison, in the department of the Loire, there occur, after passing through fragments of granite, rocks of black trap, surmounted by porphyry of the same base, the transilience being clear and palpable. This porphyry is crowned by another porphyry, of a brownish grey; but in this the crystals of felspar are long, and thinly scattered (a porphyron); while the others are white, and frequent. The black porphyry, and even the grey, are harder than the trap.

The separation of the trap or basaltin from the porphyry is clearly marked by an undulating line, in a fragment which has been polished. The porphyry has taken a fine polish, while the basaltin remains dull. The polish of the porphyry has brought to light little crystals of schorl, or siderite, which could scarcely be discovered in the rude fragments.*

NOME IV. BASALTIN AND WACKEN.

Werner's account.

This transition has also been accurately traced by Werner himself. Speaking of the mountain of Scheibenberg, he says, "I have seen there, in a successive series of shades, the most perfect transition from clay to wacken, and from this to basalt (basaltin): these three substances are the produce of the same formation; that is to say, they are precipitates or sediments of the same dissolution, which becoming more and more quiet, has deposited the clay, then the wacken, and lastly the basalt."† This explanation depends upon Werner's theory, that the rocks were deposited by waters in different states of agitation or of tranquillity. It may be added, that there is much heat, or, in strict terms, caloric, in water itself, which would otherwise be in a state of ice; not to mention the heat developed by crystallisation; so that the agency of heat may be conceived as admitted even by the Neptunists.

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* Journ. des Mines, iv. 133.

† Daub. Basaltes, 58.

On the transition between Basaltin and Wacken, the remarks of Daubuisson may also be adduced. "We have already observed that basalt has great connexions with the argillaceous rock called wacken. Let us recollect those prisms, of which one of the extremities is a true basalt, while the other is an argillaceous substance, both being the evident produce of one effort; a circumstance which excludes every suspicion of a volcanic origin. This argillaceous wacken cannot be considered as arising from an eruption of mud; for between it and the basalt there is a most marked transition, there not existing even a line between them. Nor can it be said that this wacken is a decomposed lava; for at Scheibenberg, for example, the wacken passes to common clay, which degenerates into sand, and then into gravel; but a lava, when decomposed, does not produce gravel of quartz."* He adds in a note, that olivine, augite, &c. though common in the basalt, are not found in the wacken; so that the latter cannot be a de-

Basaltin not volcanic.

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* Daub. Basaltes, 73.

composition of the former. It must however
candour be added, that after his visit to Auverg
where he was unexpectedly convinced of the v
canic nature of the products of that countr
Daubuisson hesitated concerning even the b
salts of Saxony, and hinte to the author th
they might be volcanic, but, as resting on t
summits of hills, of an antiquity altogether i
conceivable.

NOME V. WACKEN AND CLAY.

This transition has been before described.

NOME VI. JASPER AND KERALITE.

This transition, according to Patrin, is com
mon in Siberia. The author has seen specimen
in the collection of that celebrated traveller,
keralite translucent on the edge, joined wi
opake jasper. The colours also correspon
but in the keralite they are pale. This tran
tion seems to depend on the greater or smal
quantity of iron, a chief constituent in jasper.

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* See his papers in the Journal de Physique; and here Dom
Mode Basaltin.

HYPONOME I.

Massive.

HYPONOME II.

Schistose.

NOME VII. SLATE AND CHLORITE SLATE.

This is rather a scarce transition, the latter substance not being common. Slate also passes into mica slate; and sometimes into the massive substance described under the Mode Slate.

NOME VIII. FELSITE AND BASALTIN.

Dolomieu, in his able memoir on petrosilex or felsite, trap, and *roche de corne*, or magnesian basaltin, observes that they are the chief bases of lavas; and thus entered into his consideration, in forming a system of volcanic productions. He then speaks of the various transitions of his petrosilex or felsite*.

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* Journal de Physique, new series, vol. i. p. 259.

"Petrosilex, as I have already said, unit
itself by gradual shades with all rocks, in whos
composition some of the free earths enter, c
compound particles which may assist in th
formation of the masses which it chiefly const
tutes. Combined with pure quartz, in which
seems to dissolve, it gradually assumes all th
characters of quartzose rocks; by a progressiv
augmentation of talcous earth, it proceeds t
unite itself to steatites and serpentines, formin
in its progress a kind of fusible jad, which ha
not the weight of common jad: it acquires th
earthy smell, as it approaches the *roche de corne*
the schistose tissue, in uniting with argillaceou
schisti. But it is when it approximates traps
that the shades of its transitions are most insensible: and an infinity of rocks placed betwee
the two, leave the greater uncertainty concerning the species in which they should be classed,
as the composition is scarcely ever the same in
all the parts of the same mass: one portion shall
incline to trap, while the other is affected by the
fire like petrosilex. The base of many porphyries is found in this intermediate situation; a
well as most of the ancient grey and green ba
salts which come from Egypt, when it happen
that the fineness of their paste no longer allow

NOME XI. GRANITE AND GRANITIC PORPHYRY.

This is also a very common rock.

The passage from granite to granitic porphyry being one of the most remarkable and important, the following observations of Dolomieu will be found to merit particular attention*.

"During the great coagulation, to which the primitive mountains owe their construction, it seems that there have been substances, of which the concurrence, or too great abundance, has impeded or prevented the regular aggregation, in giving the paste a tenacity, in some manner fattening it, to make use of a term applied to mother-waters when they refuse to crystallise. Such are the particles of talc, and of argillaceous and magnesian earths when free. It seems that these earths, naturally unctuous, have prevented the other particles from assuming the places to which the laws of elective aggregation destined them, in causing them to slide on one another. I have pretty generally observed that the superabundance of magnesian earth chiefly acted upon the laminar texture of felspar, causing its loss, without depriving the felspar of the faculty of assuming the exterior forms of its usual crystallisation. This is pereeived in those felspars, which constitute the large spots in green porphyry, called *serpentino antico*; and still more in the felspars; which mingled with green hornblende form the granites called Egyptian greens. It frequently happens that their compact fracture no longer presents any indication of a laminar texture, though they still affect the quadrangular prismatic form, which belongs to their mode of crystallisation.

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* Journal de Physique, new series, vol. i. 1794, p. 193.

Just as in the *magma* of mother-waters, reduced to a state of paste by evaporation, there are particles which, escaping from the viscidity of the medium in which they are engaged, aggregate and form crystals, which are found buried in the mass: in the same manner, in these kinds of *magma* of the great precipitation, it is rare that some isolated crystals are not found among them; and which have acquired so much more bulk and regularity, as they have had more facility of aggregation. They are distinguished from the paste which contains them, by their form, their tissue, and almost always by their colours, brighter than that of the base. Thus are formed rocks called porphyries; and which, in reality, only differ from granites by this accident of aggregation*.

"The distinction established between granites and porphyries is proper for common use, it is necessary for artists; nevertheless the lithologist could not admit it in a strict sense, without exposing himself to an error, which might lead him to mistake the identity of the origin of these two rocks, and the analogy of their composition. The celebrated naturalist (M. de Saussure), who has furnished us with a great and important truth, by proving, by a thousand excellent observations, that *the parts of granite are contemporary, that they have all been formed in the same element, and by the same cause, and that the principle of this formation is crystallisation*; but who has thought he ought to make two separate genera of granites and porphyries, and who to distinguish them has said, *in granite there is no paste, which envelops the stony grains of which it is composed, while in porphyries, is seen a uniform base, or cement, in which the other stones are enclosed:* this naturalist, I say, by the progress of his researches, has soon himself found the insufficiency of these distinguishing characters, of

Granites.

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* This can only apply to granitic porphyries: and some other remarks must be pardoned, from the state of the science at that period.

which I have long combated the precision. Primitive mountains have often shown him, as well as myself, many rocks which have united the two modes of being, and which seemed to be intermediate species between real granites and real porphyries; and to point out the gradations by which nature passes from the formation of the one to the other. How many rocks have I not observed, which, by their polished surfaces, showed the texture attributed to porphyries, by distinct and isolated crystals, forming spots on a base apparently compact, and of a different colour; while their fracture represented grains of granite, by the scaly tissue of the substance which had appeared to be the paste, in which the other substances were enveloped; for granites have a granular appearance, not always by the detachment of the grains of each of the substances which compose them, but by the nature of the texture of the felspar, of which the plates cross each other when confusedly crystallised*: and in all compound rocks, the substance which is sufficiently abundant not to be divided by the rencounter of other small stones mixed with it, and for its parts to form a kind of continuity of mass, in surrounding the other substances, of which the grains are easily isolated, may be considered as the principal base of the rock, or as the cement which agglutinates the small stony bodies, of a different nature, concurring to the formation of the mass. Such are granites, where felspar alone often constitutes three-fourths, sometimes four-fifths of the mass; and if an abstraction of the sparry tissue is allowed, which depends on a rather more perfect aggregation, and of which it may be deprived without changing its nature, the granular appearance of the granite disappears, the felspar assumes *the aspect of a cement in which the other stones are enclosed*, and the rock acquires the conformation of porphyry, without the transition of the one to the other requiring any other condition. Nature often, as if she would demonstrate the identity of the two rocks, performs herself, in certain masses, this successive transformation of granite to porphyry, by taking away and returning at intervals its laminar tissue to the felspar; and she produces masses which, according to the expression of definitions, may be in part placed among granites, in part among the genus of porcharacters of this rock has always embarrassed systematic nomenclators, they have varied in the name they have bestowed on it, and in the place they have assigned it.

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* "It is equally on account of their scaly tissue that sparry marbles, called *saline*, seem formed of large grains, adhering together by juxtaposition. They owe the appearance of it to a confused crystallisation, which interlaces the sparry plates; and they lose this granular aspect, to assume that of a compact and uniform mass, when they are deprived of this commencement of regular aggregation."

"I have seen in the mountains of Tyrol, and especially in the large rolled pebbles in the plains of Verona, which have descended from them, a great quantity of those rocks which might be called porphido-granites, from the union of those two characters; but the most curious of this kind I have ever met with, are those of Corsica; of which, ten years since, I deposited a hundred specimens in the beautiful cabinet of Florence, under the direction of my illustrious friend Fontana.

"But it is not the granite of the earliest precipitation which possesses this identity of composition with porphyries; these primary granites, as I have said, are more quartzy than the others; the felspar is less abundant in them, and cannot represent a cement. The medium in which they were formed being purer than in later times, the particles differently constituted have been less interrupted in the choice of places, assigned them by the aggregative attraction; and if in a few of these granites some of those large spots are found, which, like placards, announce some change in the constitution of the transparent felspar, are mistaken for quartz, inasmuch as there is one direction in which their vitreous fracture is exactly like that of quartz; but their fusibility easily distinguishes them, when brought to the proof of the blow-pipe.

Porphyries. "By the inverse of what we have said, the best characterised porphyries easily pass to the state of granite. It is enough that their base shows a beginning of regular aggregation; and there are few large masses of red porphyry among the most perfect, in which spots are not observed, often more than a foot in extent, where the grains of felspar multiply so as to touch each other; little crystals of black schorl are then seen in the midst of them, which have also profited by the local facility given to the aggregation, or which perhaps has caused it by seizing the iron; the presence of which, when it is free and oxyginated, so far as to assume the red colour, seems to place an obstacle to the crystallisation. Thus also are these parts of granitic appearance discoloured: one would often believe that those large grey granitose spots, which disfigure the purple colour of the rock, proceeded from foreign substances accidentally incorporated in the paste of the porphyry; if one did not discern on the margin of those spots, that the grains become gradually less distinct, and reassume the tissue f the base, in which there is some appearance of a solution of continuity.

There are porphyries in which these spots, which differ by their colour and texture from the base of the rock, are so multiplied that they resemble bricias, and receive from them the epithet of *Porfidi briciati*. They appear formed of an infinity of similar pieces, which become united by a common cement. This kind of porphyry seems to me to depend on some accidents, which have disturbed the coagulation; which has been suspended and resumed at several times.

Monuments of Rome.

I mention, with equal confidence, the immense blocks of rocks of different natures, which decorate the city of Rome, or are found in its ruins, as I would mention the mountains themselves from which these rocks have been extracted; because it is seldom that nature herself exposes masses so large, and in such perfect preservation; and to obtain them thus, it has been necessary to attack the heart itself of the mountains. Columns of granite from 40 to 50 feet in elevation, sarcophages hollowed in masses of porphyry to the extent of even 1000 cubic feet, present as much matter for observation as the face of a rock naturally exposed; and they show the substances in a state of preservation which they cannot have on the surface of mountains, where the weather, and a thousand other causes of degradation, alter the hardest rocks. If I have acquired some knowledge of the nature of rocks, I owe it in a great measure to the comparisons that I have been able to make from the observations furnished by the monuments of Rome, with those which I collected in the mountains; and I cannot too much advise all naturalists, who travel in Italy, to pursue a regular course of lithology on those large masses, whose extraction is a proof of the industry and power of that ancient people who used them, and of which the beauty seems to assure a sort of pre-eminence to the eastern regions which furnished them; and this advantage which they possess over ours is doubtless owing only to the scantiness of means that we have employed to find similar substances in our own mountains; thus how ridiculous our magnificence appears, when we compare it with that of the ancients! I have made a descriptive catalogue of all the monumental rocks of ancient Rome, which perhaps may not be uninteresting.

"It is besides easy to show that the bases of many porphyries are only disguised granites; and it is sufficient to take off the kind of [illegible] which covers them, and which depends on the to be observable. Taking, for example, piece of the base of antique red por- md with a blow-pipe directing the flame per on it, it becomes brown by the first f the fire; and then are easily perceived ll black and white grains, intermingled se of granite; and continuing the heat sion of the mass, the white semi-trans- rothy vitrification of the white grains in- the felspar: the opake black glass pro- y the others, announces the schorl; this, sible, melts the first, and often encloses rains of felspar, before the fire has af- hem, and then their glasses mingle. As roportion of the two substances, it dif- rt although I have observed them alter- to take the predominance, the one over er, in the different masses that I have , I have nevertheless found that it was ar which most often predominated in the

presents in its base a superabundance of w
calls schorl; that is, the hornblende of the
mans, or siderite of the present work. In
porphyries, called by the Roman artists *L*
gones, the felspar appears, as it were, n
into the base, so as only to present spots
different tint. It is now well known tha
base of the porphyries is a trap, or basaltin
Dolomieu has the merit of having perhap
observed that it could not be a jasper; as
easily fusible by the blow-pipe: but ma
his observations will, in the present adv
state of the science, be pronounced to
accurate.

Granite and granitic porphyry, from
Sinai.

The same, from the Alps.

The same, from the Grampian mountai
Scotland.

In general the Scotish granites are ver
gular; and, in small fragments, often app
granitels, consisting chiefly of felspar with
seams or particles of mica, while the qu
often rare and distant.

NOME XII. GNEISS AND MICA SLATE.

This is also a common transition in primitive countries.

Gneiss and mica slate, from the Alps, &c.

NOME XIII. STEATITE AND ASBESTOS.

Steatite, in assuming a fibrous form, passes into asbestos. This transition is very uncommon. Saussure has described a rock of this kind; and Patrin has observed that it affords a remarkable example of the passage of one rock into another.

"This stone, which I received from M. Struve, is of a grey colour, sometimes inclining to yellow, sometimes to green. It greatly resembles asbestos; but the filaments are larger, softer, and more unctuous to the touch; while the fracture lengthwise presents long and large fibres, parallel among themselves, perpendicular to their bases, and irregularly prismatic. Some are straight, others a little bent; and they are sometimes three inches in length. Their lustre is little or none; and where it seems lively, and almost metallic, this effect is produced by a thin coating of talc, which covers the fibres of the stone.

"The cross fracture is extremely unequal and splintry, with a mixture of spangles of a different substance. This stone is translucent on the edges, to the thickness of four lines, and so soft as to be scratched with the nail, the streak being whitish and of some lustre: it faintly stains cloth with a grey line, is a little flexible, and pretty heavy. Under the blow-pipe it melts into a black globule, not exceeding the tenth part of a line.

"It is then evidently an intermediate kind between talc, steatite, and asbestos.

"The long fibres are intermingled with prismatic columns, striated lengthwise, white, laminar, very brilliant, but of which I do not know the nature. They are soft, translucent, and soluble in nitrous acid; but without effervescence, and in length of time. They do not crackle under the blow-pipe; and on charcoal turn brown without melting. They can only be melted on a point of sappare, into brown brilliant glass, without bubbles, and half transparent; the drop not exceeding the tenth part of a line. This stone is found at Weysler Stoude."*

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* Sauss. 1915.

in the day, I went to sleep at Courmayeur, distant from it two leagues, and returned on the morrow.

Quitting the bottom of the valley, you must ascend for nearly three quarters of an hour, to the place where the schisti touch the granite. These schisti, which at a distance only appeared a thin surface, adhering against the foot of the mountain, are a considerable mass of different layers. The substance which composes the greater part of these layers is remarkable, in that it briskly effervesces with acids, and yet very easily melts with the blow-pipe into a clear green transparent glass, which runs and sinks on the tube of glass on which it has been fixed.

Its colour is blackish, and its grain resembles that of a limestone; I wished to see what was the quantity of free absorbent earth that this rock contained: I pulverised 100 grains of it, which I pounded for an hour in distilled vinegar; this acid dissolved the half of it, and those 50 grains were fouud composed of 44 grains of lime and 6 of magnesia. The other 50 grains which had refused to dissolve in the vinegar, were placed in decoction in aqua regis; being dissolved assisted by heat, 17,47 grains of lime, 2,25 of argil, and 1,42 of iron, were extracted from it, there remained 27 grains and a half of indissoluble siliceous earth. Uniting the products of these two operations, 100 grains of this schistus were found to contain, Lime 61,45, Silex 27,50, Magnesia 6,00, Argil 2,25, Iron 1,42, Water, air, and loss 1,38. Total 100,00.

"The layers of this schistus are intermingled with layers of a fine sandstone; but little coherent, and which resolves of itself in a white sand, found in quantity at the foot of these same layers. The weak gluten, which unites these grains of sand, is of a calcareous nature.

"These layers are a little bent; but their general position, of those at least which are the lowest, is vertical, excepting by a few degrees, in which they recline against the mountain. There can be no doubt on the position of the beds of these schisti, because they are exactly parallel to the plates of which they are composed. But these layers are cut here and there, and at right angles, by clefts parallel to one another, and which all bend alike, descending to the S. W. under an angle of about 50 degrees. These clefts leave intervals between them; here a foot, there only a few inches. When they are observed at a distance, it is impossible not to take them for divisions of the beds of the rock, so important is it in these researches to see the object close, and observe it in detail; for the interior structure of the rock can alone decide between sections which cross at right angles, which are those which denote the position of the beds. I have already mentioned what I thought of the origin of the fissures which thus cut the beds, and I shall elsewhere refer to it again.

"I have distinguished four very distinct shades in the transition of these schisti to granites.

"The first layers of schistus, where some alteration is observed, assume plates more wavy, brighter, more resembling mica; but they have otherwise the same properties with the others.

"The next are still more waved, plates of real mica are observed, and besides a mixture of quartz, which yields fire with steel, although the rock still effervesces with acids. Veins of a black substance are observed in this same rock, bright, composed of little rhomboids, which appear to be the crystallisation of the purest substance of the schistus; for these crystals dissolve with effervescence in acids, without leaving any perceptible residue; and yet they very easily melt under the blow-pipe into a greenish and transparent glass, which sinks on the point of the glass tube.

"The third shade is a real quartz, mixed with a little mica, and which does not effervesce.

" The fourth is a grey granite, with very small grains of quartz, felspar, and mica.

" This transition in general occupies an inconsiderable thickness; in some places these four layers, taken together, are not more than a foot: nevertheless, the granite does not acquire all its perfection, its grains are not very exact and distinct, till a distance of some feet from its junction. Layers are observed in this perfect granite; they are parallel to all those which form this transition.

" Following it round the mountain, I traced this junction of schisti to a considerable distance by sounding every where with a hammer the bordering beds: I observed no particular difference in the nature of the layers, which form the transition between granite and schistus; but I found some alteration in the position of the beds: advancing towards the S. W. I observe schisti as well as granites overhanging toward the valley, here of 35, there even of 47 degrees. The direction of the layers also changes a little. Those nearest to Col Ferret run to the S. S. W., while those most distant from this same Col, run about 30 degrees more to the west.

" I observed also, in some places, vitriolic effervescences which distilled, sometimes from the schistus, sometimes from the granite itself."

friable or spotty; and its edges then become more translucent.

"Reduced to powder, and digested in the nitrous acid, it loses 45 hundredths of its weight; and the residuum, of a fine white, and truly siliceous, dissolves with effervescence in the mineral alkali. It is cold to the touch: its specific weight is 2,301.

"Under the blow-pipe it begins to crack a little, then it melts in boiling to a white scoria; the fusibility of which expressed by a globule, equal to 0,8, answers to 71 degrees of Wedgewood's thermometer; but the small fragments that have been digested in the nitrous acid, are much more refractory, on account of their being deprived of the calcareous earth, the principle of their fusibility. Globules of them can only be formed equal to 0,04, corresponding with the 1426 degree of Wedgewood.

"There are some small knots of flint scattered in the interior of this stone; and its surface is frequently covered with pretty black dendrites.

"I have already observed, that naturalists have confounded the stones of this kind with petrosilex, and particularly with the *petrosilex æquabilis* of Wallerius. But its properties are too remarkable, and too different from those of of stone enclose, in the middle of their thickness, another stone in which are contained kernels of flint.

"Each of these beds, whose thickness varies from one inch to five or six, is therefore composed of three different substances: 1. White stone; 2. Brown stone; 3. Flint.

"White stone, No. 1, forms the upper and lower part of each bed; it is calcareous, of a white approaching to red; it breaks in irregular uneven fragments, with obtuse angles; its fracture presents a mixture of grains, more or less small, shapeless, earthy, and without any lustre. It is rough to the touch, and stains the hands a little; it is soft, but however less so than chalk. It therefore differs from this by being a little more hard, and by a coarser grain. It dissolves in acids with considerable effervescence, and leaves behind a small argillaceous sediment.

"The brown stone, No. 2, which occupies the middle of the beds of that kind of chalk, is of a clear Isabella-brown; it breaks in conchoidal fragments with sharp edges, and whose angles and small scales are translucent; its fracture is compact with scales, being sometimes very small, sometimes pretty large. Its lustre is weak, a little shining; its streak is of a whitish grey; its hardness rather more than that of ul white scoria, besprinkled with small the fusibility of which, expressed by a qual to 0,3, answers to the 189 degree ewood.

fervesces in the nitrous acid with many bles; and a small piece, of the thick- line, after remaining in it twenty-four found to have lost much of its hard- ecially at the surface; it even stains a wnish, and breaks between the fingers, owever being reduced to powder. Its is then only 0,13, or 581 degrees of ood.

ording to these characters, it is a kind ne which I have described in 1524, by of *silicicalce*.

nodules (3) enclosed in that brown re of a fawn-colour, translucent, hard, cture perfectly conchoidal, smooth in rts, a little scaly in others, having, in- the characters of true flint, or of the

the upper and lower part of the bed of th stone, and are found thus contiguous, on the o side to the white chalky stone, and on the oth to the silicicalce. There are also scattered he and there, in the body of the chalky stone, som small flints, and some small silicicalces, whic are not fragments, but pieces formed in the spot they occupy.

“ These observations and experiments appea to me to prove that these intermediate kinds w have sometimes represented as passages from on kind to another, or as limestones half metamorphosed into flint, are often only mechanical mixtures of one kind with another. We her see that the calcareous earth has preserved i this petrosilex all its solubility in acids; an when we extract it from the mixture, what remains separated from the dissolvent, is still refractory like pure silex.

“ I shall also draw an example from this ston of the insufficiency of the external characters o a rock to determine its nature, and even only t decide whether it be simple or compound. Indeed in the *silicicalce*, the calcareous parts ar not combined with the siliceous, since the nitrou acid extracts them with effervescence withou destroying the aggregation of the stone. The are then only interposed between the siliceou elements; however, the whole that results from it, observed even with a strong magnifying glass, appears to be absolutely homogenous; and ought consequently, according to the rule of the lithological nomenclature, to be considered as a simple stone.

"If then we owe gratitude to Mr. Werner, for having given to the exterior characters all the perfection of which they were susceptible; we must omit no means which may afford us lights upon the nature and composition of bodies, with which our senses alone are incapable of furnishing us.

"We frequently find on the same road, between Aix and Lambeso, the same flints enclosed in chalky calcareous stone."*

His account may also be subjoined of a singular assemblage of heterogenous rocks, which could not well be separated, as the sudden transitions form their chief curiosity. These he discovered on Mont Jovet, between St. Vincent and Verrex, not far from the city of Aosta; being constant alternations of arrects or uprights of [illegible], basaltin, siderite, garnet rock, and calcareous granitoid.

Rocks of Mont Jovet.

Serpentine, with brilliant plates of green transparent talc, sometimes undulated, at othe fibrous or laminar.

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* Sauss. 1524.

A large rock of siderite, partly very ha and yielding sparks with steel; partly lamin and more tender. The hard part marbled wi brown, from the decomposition of the iron. is crystallised.

A massive garnet rock, either in mass or co fusedly crystallised with deep green siderite, i brilliant needles, being a mixture of the greate beauty*. The infusibility of the garnet, Sau sure ascribes to the refractory matrix; a remar that may be applied in many other instance and chemists should often analyse the gang

Another rock of siderite, brown where co posed of flat plates, green when of little needle confusedly interlaced. His greenish schistus, o a fine *pierre de corne*, seems a chlorite slate.

The calcareous granitoid of limestone, quart and mica, alternates repeatedly at Mont Jov with the other rocks; and Saussure observe another kind, consisting of rhomboidal calcareo spar of a fawn-colour, of a pure white quart and white talc, in soft brilliant plates; a mo beautiful and uncommon rock†.

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[*] Some fragments are of pure red.

[†] Sauss. 965.

Among the transilient rocks may also be classed many which are imperfect in their structure, nd so irregular in different portions, that they mbarrass the scientific inquirer. In fact, rocks f this nature constitute a large portion of the lobe; while the specimens in cabinets chiefly onsist of what are called well characterised. o detail and class these imperfect rocks would e infinite, and uninteresting, so a few observaions may suffice.

Imperfect and irregular rocks of Britain.

Great Britain and Ireland, in particular, often fford irregular and imperfect rocks. Even the granite of Scotland rarely presents the regular rystallisation observable in that of some other ountries; consisting chiefly of felspar, with a little quartz, and remote spangles of mica. Dr. Townson, in his mineralogy of Shropshire, has pecified many irregular rocks of this kind; uch as an imperfect or ill characterised granite, omposed of red felspar, white quartz, and lackish green hornblende. But this appearnce only occurs in the most perfect specimens; hile in general it may rather be called a sandone, seemingly formed by deposition. Such is lso the rock of Raglith, formed of grains of felpar and quartz, in an earthy base*.

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* Townson's Tracts, p. 163, 168, 189, &c.

Malvern hills. The mineralogy of the Malvern hills, in Worcestershire, also presents several imperfect rocks of the nature of granite, and chert, and wacken, with mica slate and schistose siderite. But the intelligent writer's own description will convey the clearest idea. He introduces it by the following observation, which indicates their proper place in this division: "All these rocks frequently *pass imperceptibly into each other*; whence arise various strange mixtures, and imperfectly characterised fossils."

"These rocks are singularly blended together. In some parts the granitoid rock, which contains scarce any mica, runs as it were in thick irregular veins, or forms patches amongst the wacken and chert; and these likewise are similarly situated amongst the granite, sometimes the one, sometimes the other, forming the principal mass.

"In walking over these hills, I collected the following specimens; none of which I found any where to constitute a considerable portion of them, except the granitoid kind; and this, though greatly varying in its nature, I found in considerable rocks on the summit of the ridge between Great Malvern and the Well House.

"1. Red granite, with scarce any silver mica, and a little hornblende.

minute spangles of mica. The different onents being in very small quantities, con- a body which, at first sight, appears ho- nous.

Quartz and felspar, in such minute grains resemble a sand-stone.

. Red compact felspar? In this I cannot, rith a good lens, distinguish any admixture rtz; but when held in a particular direc- he silver mica is visible. I conjecture this of the same nature as the preceding, but composed of much minuter parts.

. Red granite, or rather felspar and quartz, g a vein or stripe in spatous (granular) lende; which is likewise interspersed with articles of felspar.

. Two stripes of the preceding granitoid re, separated by brownish mica.

. Stripes of the preceding granitoid mix- nbedded in, and separated by, a greenish

" 10. Black spatous hornblende, interspe
with small particles of red felspar.

" 11. Fine grained black spatous hornble
interspersed with very few and very minute
ticles of reddish felspar.

" 12. A brown stone, and, to the naked
almost homogenous; but which is a mixtur
nearly equal portions of red felspar and bl
hornblende; but both in very minute partic

" 13. Black-grey wacken.

" 14. The same, with a spot of siskin g
lapis nephriticus, or kind of jad.

" 15. A mixture of hornblende and the s
lapis nephriticus, with some quartz, all so i
mately mixed as to form nearly a homoge
basis or ground, in which are small streaks
particles of red felspar.

" 16. Reddish grey petrosilex, including a
particles of pellucid felspar.

" All these specimens are from about thre
four miles of the centre of the chain; the o
parts of it I never examined."*

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* Townson's Tracts, p. 216.

DOMAIN XI.

DECOMPOSED.

THE decomposition of rocks forms a striking feature in geology, as a great part of the productive soil, and many of the substances used in important manufactories, may be considered as chiefly derived from this circumstance. Several of the most useful clays are reputed by some to be merely decompositions of felspar; the

Importance of the subject.

mixture of sand being a decomposition
Loam. quartz. Bergman found the loam n
London, to contain only 13 of argil; t
remaining 87 being a redish grey sand,
Mould. fine as flour. What is called mould, co
sists chiefly of vegetable and animal
mains. The fall of leaves in a for
creates a fine black mould.

In various parts of England, and oth
countries, the loam is of a red colour, a
proceeds in what may be called belts
zones (for strata can only be superimpos
on each other) for a great distance, b
with various interruptions. This red ti
can scarcely arise from the decompos
felspar of red primeval granite, as so
have supposed; for in that case the hard
nodules of the granite would probably st
be found, as in the red sand-stone; b
may merely proceed from the admixtu
of red oxyd of iron, while in other sp
the black oxyd may predominate. Ar
laceous earth is found in the most primit
substances; and theory can scarcely
expected to determine whether the fer

clay, which forms so prodigious and important a portion of the surface of this globe, and furnishes aliment to animals and vegetables, arises from a decomposition effected, during myriads of ages, by the superincumbent waters; or by a mere deposition from the original mass and constitution of the waters themselves.

On the decomposition of rocks, the observations of a skilful chemist must be particularly exact and interesting, for which reason those of Mr. Kirwan are extracted; more especially as they abound with examples which are essential to the nature of the present work. It may also be prefaced, that the decomposed rocks have never hitherto been treated in any professed work of mineralogy, so that the novelty of the subject calls for every aid of illustration.

Kirwan's explanation.

"Decomposition consists in the separation of the constituent parts of a stone, or other substance; and may be either total or partial. Disintegration denotes the separation only of the integrant parts; both often take place in the same substance.

Causes. "The only causes of mere disintegration as yet known, are the vicissitudes of the atmosphere; the absorption and congelation of water; the sudden dilatation or contraction produced by the former, particularly when extreme, cannot but loosen the texture of most stony substances, and when aided by the absorption of water, strongly tend to separate them. The water thus received in their minutest rifts, being afterwards frozen, bursts them with incredible force, of which frequent instances occur in the northern countries, and in the more elevated mountains of the southern where the most sudden transitions of heat and cold, and the highest degrees of the latter, frequently prevail; and hence the broken craggy state of their loftiest summits*.

"The known external causes of decomabsorbing oxygen, while it is thus converted into vitriolic acid; but moisture is also requisite. To this cause the decomposition of such stones as contain pyrites is to be attributed; it seldom acts, however unless united to some metallic substance and hence its combinations with argil, unless assisted by heat, are not sensibly decomposed, or only in a great length o time.

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* Crantz has informed us that, in Greenland, the rocks are often heard to burst with a noise like thunder.—P.

Oxyd of iron.

" Calces of iron, moderately oxygenated are the most general cause of decomposition, particularly when assisted by a loose texture, and the other causes of disintegration; these act by absorbing a greater proportion of oxygen and fixed air, but require also the assistance of moisture. By this absorption they gradually swell, and are disunited from the other constituent parts of the stone, into whose composition they enter. When least oxygenated, their colour is black, or brown, or bluish; and in some instances, when united with argil and magnesia, grey or greenish grey; the former in proportion as they become mor oxygenated, become purple, red, orange, and finally pale yellow; the latter becomes at first blue, then purple, red, &c.

"Iron in its perfect metallic state, or at least but slightly oxygenated, also decomposes water; but if exposed to the air, it becomes farther oxygenated; and the compound into which it enters gradually withers, as Dr. Higgins observed, in imitating pouzzolana (on Cements, 124).

"But stones, into whose composition calces of iron highly oxygenated seem to have originally entered, are very difficultly decomposed, as red jaspers, &c. as they already possess nearly as much as they can absorb.

"Manganese, when slightly oxygenated, is known to attract oxygen strongly, particularly with the assistance of heat and moisture; hence it is, in many cases, a principle of decomposition, as in siderocalcites, &c.; it also frequently assists or promotes that effected by calces of iron.

Lime, &c.

"Lime, from its attraction to fixed air, and its solubility in water, must promote, destroyed. A single drop of sea water is sufficient to produce the germ of destruction; it forms a spot which gradually increases, and spreads like a caries through the whole mass of the stone: nor does it stop there, but after some time affects al the neighbouring stones in the wall. The stones most subject to this malady are those that contain most magnesia; those which are fine grained and of a close texture, resist most.' Short as this account is, it appears from it that the limestone of Malta contains both calcareous earth and magnesia, but most probably in a mild state; and the stone being of the looser kind, is of the species which is known to contain most mephitic air. M. Dolomieu shows, at the end of his tract on the Lipari Islands, that the atmosphere of Malta in some seasons, when a south wind blows, is remarkably fouled with mephitic air; and at other times, when a north wind blows, remarkably pure; and hence, of all others, most fit for the generation of nitrous acid.—Again, sea water, besides common salt destroyed. How the alkaline part of the nitre, which is one of the products resulting from the decomposition of this stone, is formed, is as yet mysterious; is it not from the tartarin lately discovered in clays and many stones? I am as yet inclined to think, that it is derived from the putrefaction of vegetable and animal substances; and though nitrous acid formed of oxygen and air, from putrefying substances, be found united not only to the absorbent earths to which it is exposed, but also to a fixed alkali; yet I should rather suppose that the alkali is conveyed into those earths by the putrid air, than newly formed; and the reason is, that tartarin, notwithstanding its fixity, is also found in soot; and in the same manner may be elevated in putrid exhalations. As to the common salt, said also by Dolomieu to be found in the blisters of this mouldering stone, I am as yet in doubt; for common salt was also said to accompany the native nitre found in the *pulo* of Apulia; yet Klaproth, in analysing this nitrated earth, could find none:

see Zimmerman's account of this native nitre. (36 Roy. 111, 113, and 1 Klap. 319.)

"So also when the calx of iron contained in stones is but slightly oxygenated, it may, by reason of the close texture of the stone, remain undecomposed for ages; but if by any accident, as fracture, or contact with some saline matter, or the alternate reception and dismissal of water, the reception of more oxygen is facilitated, a decomposition will commence, which, as in the former case, will spread like a caries, because the less oxygenated part of the iron takes oxygen more easily from the more oxygenated part, than from the atmosphere; by reason, that the absorbed oxygen is more condensed than it is in the atmosphere. Thus iron inserted into a highly oxygenated solution of vitriol of iron, and which therefore refuses to crystallise, will take up the excess of oxygen, and thus restore the solution to a crystallisable state; or as calx of tin takes up oxygen from calces of silver, antimony, &c.

in the beautiful experiments of Pelletier, (12 An. Chym. 229, &c.)

Ferruginous rocks. "Hence also, ferruginous stones near or upon the surface of the earth, being more exposed to air and moisture, and the disruptive action of growing vegetables, whose roots pierce through their minutest rifts, and by swelling burst them, are more exposed and subject to decomposition. Water carries down the ferruginous particles into the lower strata, and forms there those illinitions and masses of pisiform argillaceous iron ore, which Buffon and others have, without sufficient reason, derived from decayed vegetables.

"Basalt, when pure, strongly resists decomposition, or its surface alone bears any marks of it; the argillaceous, siliceous, and calcareous ingredients, and part of the ferruginous, soon recombining and forming a hard crust, which invests and protects the remainder of the stone. Wacken. But wacken is very easily decomposed; and hence the basalts or traps, into whose composition it enters, yield easily to the decomposing principle. Some granites, I may say most, are in appropriate circumstances not difficultly decomposed, the mica and felspar are chiefly affected: the same may be also said of most sand-stones, particularly those whose cement is argillaceous or ferruginous, and many porphyries and gneisses."*

Importance to the arts.

From these interesting observations it will appear, that the decomposition of rocks is not only a curious subject in itself, but of the greatest importance to the arts, particularly architecture and sculpture. Many noble edifices have soon become disfigured, because the architect did not know the easy decomposition of the materials. Thus at Trianon the pillars are already decayed, because the argillaceous nature of the marble of Campan will not bear exposure in the open air, where it soon exfoliates. At Oxford it has been observed that some of the public buildings are injured, because the builders had not studied the nature of the stone, which requires to be laid in its original position in the quarry, that the first compression may still exist, as otherwise it will imbibe the moisture, and thus split or crumble in frosty weather. Sculptors are singularly anxious that the stone which they use should not be subject to this defect; and their example should be followed by architects, as the duration of their works and reputation depends entirely on this branch of knowledge. It would appear that the ancients, who always mingled the useful with the ornamental, had particularly investigated this subject, even in very early times; for the Egyptians, in their eternal monuments, had already learned to prefer granite and porphyry, the two most durable substances in nature; and which have the additional advantage that they afford no temptation for destruction, because they cannot, like marble, be converted into lime: for some of the noblest monuments of Greece have been used for this purpose by the barbarous Turks; and a temple or statue of Diana has been turned into cement, for the voluptuous apartments of a Haram. It is also conceived by antiquaries, that some of the finest monuments of ancient Rome perished in this manner during the middle ages.

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* Kirwan's Geological Essays, p. 143—153.

Hard stones may decompose.

It must not be forgotten that stones apparently hard, are sometimes more subject to decay than those of a softer contexture. The pyramids of Egypt have suffered little degradation, though constructed with a soft calcareous konite*. The Roman Pharos, at Dover, remains almost entire, though built with a soft stalactitic tufa, found in abundance on the shores of several rivers; for example, the Tees, in the north of England. The transportation of this stone from a distance, seems to evince that there was some reason for giving it a preference; and as it is coralloid in its structure, it was perhaps justly conceived that it would emit the moisture with the same ease as it was received, and hence be little subject to decomposition. The conjecture, if such, was certainly verified by the event. From this, and numerous other examples, it may be inferred that the ancient architects observed, with a most scrutinizing eye, the nature and the structure of the stone which they employed; an important circumstance which has not met with due consideration among the moderns.

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* Strabo says, that one of the pyramids was more expensive, as the lower part was built with basalt, from Ethiopia; a circumstance which seems to have escaped the attention of travellers, probably from the white crust which invests basalt. But some were covered with granite: see Dom. II.

The same considerations are also of the greatest importance in private buildings, where stone is abundant and in general request; and the product of any new quarry should be put to several tests, and severely examined, before it be brought into use. The example of the houses of Malta, above mentioned by Mr. Kirwan, is a striking lesson of this kind; and some modern buildings in Scotland are more decayed than the ancient. If iron, clay, or even perhaps some magnesian mixtures, be much intermingled, the stone is apt to become carious. But the magnesian rocks in general are little subject to decay; and serpentine, resisting moisture by its unctuous nature, forms some of the boldest summits and promontories. It was perhaps this consideration which induced the preference of ollite, or potstone, in the construction of the Duke of Argyle's noble mansion at Inverary.

These observations can scarcely demand excuse, as being digressive, for the utility of any subject is its most laudable quality: *nisi utile est quod facimus, stulta est gloria.* But to return to considerations more immediately connected with the nature of this work, it must not be forgotten that the able illustrator of the Huttonian theory, has treated the subject of decomposed rocks, which may be said indeed to form the very foundation of that system, with his usual talents; but not with that long and laborious discussion which was to have been expected on a topic so important to his purpose. After describing the plain of Crau, at the mouth of the Rhone, a space of about 20 square leagues covered with quartzose pebbles, and which Saussure observed to proceed from the decomposition of a vast stratum of pudding-stone, which underlies the whole; the intelligent autho thus proceeds.

Playfair's observations.

"The argument for the decompositio of stony substances, which is afforded b the state of this singular plain, may b confirmed by the appearances observed i many extensive tracts of land all over the world, and especially in some parts of Great Britain. The road to Exeter from Taunton Dean, between the latter and Honiton, passes over a large heath or down, considerably elevated above the plain of Taunton. The rock which is the base of this heath, as far as can be discovered, is limestone; and over the surface of it large flints, in the form of gravel, are very thickly spread. There is no higher ground in the neighbourhood from which this gravel can be supposed to have come, nor any stream that can have carried it; so that no explanation of it remains, but that it is formed of the flints contained in beds of limestone which are now worn away. The flints on the heath are precisely of the kind found in when it is observed, that the basis of the whole tract just described is a red sandstone, often containing in it a hard quartzy gravel, perfectly similar to that which has just been mentioned. From the dissolution of beds of this sandstone, which formerly covered the present, there can be no doubt that this gravel is derived. But as the gravel is in general thinly dispersed through the sandstone, and abounds only in some of its layers, it should therefore seem that a vast body of strata must have been worn away and decomposed, before such quantities of gravel as now exist in the soil could have been let loose.

"I have said that a rock, capable of affording such gravel as this, is not to be found in the tract of country just mentioned. This, however, is not strictly true; for in Worcestershire, between Bromesgrove and Birmingham, about seven miles from the latter, a rock is found consisting of indurated strata, greatly elevated, and without doubt primitive, from the detritus of which such gravel as we are now speaking of might be produced. These strata seem to rise up from under the secondary where they are intersected by the road and, for as much as appears, are not of great thickness, so that they cannot have afforded the materials of this gravel directly, though they may have done so indirectly, or through the medium of the red sandstone; that is to say, a primary rock of which they are the remains, may have afforded materials for the gravel in the sandstone; and this sandstone may, in its turn, have afforded the materials of the present soil, and particularly the gravel contained in it.

"Pudding-stones being very liable to decomposition, have probably, in most countries, afforded a large proportion of the loose gravel now found in the soil. The mountains, or at least hills, of this rock, which are found in many places, prove the great extent of such decomposition. Mount Rigi, for instance, on the side of the lake of Lucerne, is entirely of pudding-stone, and is 742 toises in height, measured from the level of the lake. By the descriptions given of it, as well as of other hills of the same kind in Swisserland, we may, without due attention, be led to suppose that they are entirely formed of loose gravel. Even M. Saussure's description is chargeable with this fault; though, when attended to, it will be fou[illegible] to contain a sufficient proof that this hill is composed of real pudding-stone. The nature of the thing also, would be sufficient to convince us that a hill, more than 4000 feet in height, could not consist of loose and unconsolidated materials.

"If then we regard Mount Rigi as the remains of a body of pudding-stone strata, we must conclude that these strata were originally more extensive; and the adjacent valleys and plains will serve, in some degree, to measure the quantity of them which time has destroyed."*

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* Playfair, 373.

The novelty of the topic, in a professe work of this nature, will be a sufficie apology for the length of these introducto observations: but it is now proper to pu sue the plan proposed, by an arrangeme of the chief decomposed rocks.

NOME I. DECOMPOSED BASALTIN.

The German mineralogists have not been deficient in their observation of this curious appearance. Karsten, in his catalogue of Leske's collection, has the following instances, among others, in the geographical series.

HYPONOME I.

Basaltin.

"1525. Very fine splintery basalt, with half decayed chrysolite disseminated, and exteriorly decomposed to yellowish brown clay, from Rietstein, Saxony. Of Germany.

"1533. Basalt, in which the chrysolite is become very steatitical through decay, from the same place.

"1534. A piece of basalt with decayed chrysolite, wherein it is quite evident that the pores originate from the decay of the latter, from the same place.

"1577. A piece of basalt, mixed partly with small grained chrysolite, partly with felspar, which, as is very frequently the case in granite, is decomposed to lithomarga; from Wachberg, beside Hartmansdorf.

"1667. Perfectly decayed basalt, which some places contains a large quantity of earth sembling bole, with interposed basalt consisting lamellar distinct concretions.

"1671. A pentahedral columnar tolerably la piece, which consists entirely of this earth, so t evidently the basalt must have been decompos into it.

"Rem. It deserves to be noticed as a singu phenomenon, that a perfect hexahedral prism chrysolite occurs in it.

"1819. A very decayed porous basalt fr ment, which lay between the solid layers, and called lava flag.

"1673. Very decayed porous basalt, wh had better be called a basaltic amygdaloid, whe in are still contained abundant vestiges of earth, with which these pores were formerly fille

"1674. The same fossil, but the pores, not uniform, are smaller and larger promiscuously.

"1675. The same fossil, penetrated more formly with the sulphur-yellow argillaceous m which gives to the whole, in the opinion of m geologists, a volcanic appearance."

HYPONOME II.

Amygdalite.

"305. Amygdaloid resembling basalt, in which small groups of zeolite occur, which in some places have totally lost their water of crystallisation.

"306. Similar amygdaloid, out of which all the extraneous parts have decayed, therefore the whole has a perfectly porous appearance; from Ascherofen, in the Thuringian forest.

"307. A piece of amygdaloid in which not only all the extraneous parts have decayed out, but the basis itself is also very much decayed; hence such varieties are not unfrequently called pumice; from Upper Lusatia."

As the opinion concerning the volcanic nature of basaltin seems rather to gain ground, it is not improbable that some of those substances are truly volcanic. When we consider the vast number of volcanoes in Asia and America, amounting to about one hundred and fifty, we may very reasonably infer that many in Europe may have become extinct. As these appearances only affect small spots, prejudice on either side becomes truly ludicrous; and its excess will, with rational minds, turn the scale upon the other side. What shall be said, when a late writer has informed us, that pumice itself is commonly a Neptunian substance?

NOME II. D. PORPHYRY.

In the same work, Karsten has given the following examples:

" 208. A piece of porphyry in which the felspar is indeed entirely, but the basis only slightly, decomposed; from Norway.

" 209. Porphyry in which the felspar is partly actually decomposed, but partly appears barely without lustre, the basis is become perfectly friable; from the vicinity of Regensburg.

" Rem. It is very frequently passed for tarras."

The remarkable stone which composes the Puy de Dome, where Pascal made his celebrated observations on the barometer, is a porphyry, which seems to be decomposed by volcanic heat. According to the experiments of Saussure, the base is an earthy felspar, or felsite.

Saxum metalliferum

But the most celebrated decomposed porphyry is the *saxum metalliferum* of Baron de Born, which serves as a gangart to many rich mines of gold and silver in Hungary; and even to the noble opal, only found in that country. It is surprising that so many mistakes should have been made even by skilful mineralogists, while he repeatedly informs us himself that it is a grey argillaceous stone, mistaken by the miners for a sandstone, often containing crystals of felspar and quartz, and sometimes schorl. But in general the felspar itself seems to be decomposed, forming oblong white spots on the grey base. The gold and the opal would appear to have been formed after the decomposition of the rock. Opal and chalcedony are also found in entire porphyry; as well as veins of gold. The various porphyries of the German writers, occasion a strange confusion in the very nature of the substances.

The *saxum metalliferum* might as well be called Bornite, in honour of that great mineralogist. Bornite.

HYPONOME I.

Bornite, from various parts of Hungary.

Micronome 1. The same, with native gold in thin plates and disseminated, from the same.

Micronome 2. The same, with sylvanite, from Nagyag in Transilvania.

Micronome 3. The same, with fine dendritic gold, from Cremnitz in Hungary.

HYPONOME II.

Micronome 1. The same, with noble opal, from Czerweniza in Hungary.

Micronome 2. The same, with black opal, from the same.

Micronome 3. The same, with milk opal, and many other kinds, from the same*.

NOME III. D. SLATE.

Some kinds of slate, especially those mixed with calcareous matter, easily exfoliate and decompose.

NOME IV. D. QUARTZ.

This substance is far from being easily decomposed; but, from some unexpected intermixture, it sometimes though rarely decomposes in granite, while the felspar remains entire. Mr. Kirwan has an article concerning earthy quartz, cularly affected in decomposed granite; to which article the reader is referred.

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* See Townson's Travels in Hungary, for an ample account of the opal mines.

HYPONOME I.

Felspar changed into kaolin.

HYPONOME II.

Into clay.

NOME VII. D. GRANITE.

The grandeur of this substance renders all i appearances interesting. The decomposition granite may be considered on a large and on small scale; in the former point of view, th e subject has been well illustrated by Ramond, who has added a plate of its various appear ances*. As the felspar is generally by far th e most abundant substance, it might have bee expected that granite would split into rhomb; but the forms cannot be called regular, though the sides, as Saussure has observed, are very plane or flat, intersecting, as if cut, all the component substances. According to Ramond,

Pyrenees.

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* Voyage au Mont Perdu, p. 20, &c. It is to be regretted that a style ludicrously emphatic and important, should disfigure a work, otherwise curious and interesting.

cularly affected in decomposed granite; to which article the reader is referred.

HYPONOME I.

Felspar changed into kaolin.

HYPONOME II.

Into clay.

NOME VII. D. GRANITE.

The grandeur of this substance renders all its appearances interesting. The decomposition of granite may be considered on a large and on a small scale; in the former point of view, the subject has been well illustrated by Ramond, Pyrenees. who has added a plate of its various appearances[*]. As the felspar is generally by far the most abundant substance, it might have been expected that granite would split into rhombs; but the forms cannot be called regular, though the sides, as Saussure has observed, are very plane or flat, intersecting, as if cut, all the component substances. According to Ramond, the final fragment, in the massive decomposition of granite, resembles a wedge*. One rock presents harder projecting veins, crossing in various directions; while the softer parts are excavated: perhaps a type in miniature of the granite veins observable on a larger scale, when the softer intervals may have been wasted, and their place, after many ages, supplied by schistus.

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[*] Voyage au Mont Perdu, p. 20, &c. It is to be regretted that a style ludicrously emphatic and important, should disfigure a work, otherwise curious and interesting.

This massive decomposition of granite often takes place on the summits of mountains. It is said that Ben Nevis, the highest mountain in Great Britain, affords interesting examples of this kind; but, to the disgrace of our mineralogy, that mountain remains without due examination.

Sochondo.

The high ridge of Sochondo, in Chinese Tartary, which gives source to the great rivers of Onon and Argoon, is said to present summits consisting of large rocks, piled on each other in successive terraces. The mountains are probably granitic, like the celebrated *Odon-Tchelon*, in Daouria, near the same river Onon, which

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[*] De Luc, Geologie, 305, says that granite sometimes decomposes into circular portions, the rhombs having become spheroids. He saw piles of these in the Giant Mountains of Silesia, which, at a distance, resembled Dutch cheeses.

In some granites the decomposed mica becomes chlorite; but it seems too bold to assume that all chlorite is decomposed mica. See Journ. des Mines, iv. 42.

presents in its opulent bosom chrysolites, emeralds, and beryls; and which is thus described by an able observer.

Odon-Tchelon.

"Three or four leagues before arriving at the gang of the beryls, you begin to rise on the vast base of the mountain, entirely composed of the remains of its ancient summit. You may go on horseback to the foot of its actual summit, which is only elevated above its base about 1200 feet perpendicular; and it may be easily climbed on foot, as it is composed of granite tolerably friable, and which presents no precipices. This summit is formed like a horse-shoe, at the bottom of which is a spring, which waters the little valley formed by the two branches of the horse-shoe, whose aperture faces the S. E.; its extent in length being from 4 to 500 fathoms. It is upon the slope, which rises on the right in entering the valley, that there are two gangs of emeralds: the first is not far from the rivulet, and contains chrysolites; the second is near the middle of the height of the summit, rather advanced within the horse-shoe, and is that which contains the emeralds. The third gang is on the very crest of the summit, at the extremity of the horse-shoe, it contains the beryls." * If this celebrated mountain had not been decomposed, perhaps these precious mines would not have been discovered.

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* Patrin, ii. 24.

Kaolin.

On a smaller scale, the most usual decomposition of granite is where the felspar assumes the appearance of bole or lithomarga, of porcelain earth, or of fine clay. The noted Kaolin of the Chinese forming a chief ingredient of their famous porcelain manufactures, is a decomposed felspar, which seems mostly to proceed from an entire rock of that substance, as there seems to be no quartz; while that of Limoges, in France, the chief ingredient of the Sevres manufacture, may have been a granite in which the micarel is also decomposed; for there are numerous grains of quartz, which are carefully separated.

Granite, decomposed by volcanic heat, is common in Auvergne, where the lava has burst through superincumbent masses of that substance; but such appearances may rather be ranked among the volcanic; the decomposition here chiefly treated, being that effected by the influence of time and climate. Karsten has given the following examples of decomposed granite.

HYPONOME I.

“ 46. A piece of granite, in which the felspar has lost only a very minute portion of the water of crystallisation; from Upper Lusatia.

“ 47. Granite, with felspar somewhat farther decomposed; from Konigshain.

“ 48. Granite, with felspar considerably decomposed; from the same place.

“ 49. Granite, on one side of which the felspar is decomposed almost entirely to porcelain clay; but on the other not quite so much decomposed; from the county of Glaz.

HYPONOME II.

“ 50. Granite, in which the mica is decomposed into steatite, but the felspar very slightly; from Siberia.

“ 51. Granite with mica and felspar, quite decomposed; from the vicinity of Meissen.

“ 52. Granite, with almost perfectly decomposed mica, and felspar slightly so; from Kiphausen, in Thuringia.

“ 53. Granite with entirely decomposed mica, in which, on the other hand, the felspar still retains its perfect lustre; from the Altaischan Mountains.

tant regions; those empires of sand present to human observation no symptom of utility, but, on the contrary, daily encroach on the fertile vales in their vicinity.

Sandstone rock and sand, from the desarts of Africa.

The same, from Arabia. The sand is red and coarse, and the decomposition would appear to proceed from iron; so that a metal of the greatest utility may, in the field of battle, or in the dreary desart, become the most pernicious to the human race.

Sandstone and sand, from the desart of Shamo.

NOME XI. D. CLAY-SLATE.

This is a common occurrence. Aluminous slate is particularly subject to decomposition.

NOME XII. D. SAUSSURITE.

This magnesian basaltin, one of the *pierres de corne* of Saussure, is not only liable to a superficial decomposition, forming a white crust; but, as it sometimes contains asbestos and amianthus, may become rifty, and thus split by the weather.

Decayed Saussurite, from the Alps.

The same, with amianthus, from the Pyrenees.

NOME XIII. D. MARBLE.

Argillaceous marble, as already mentioned, is peculiarly subject to decomposition. In the north of England, black marble has been observed, accompanied with a soft grey substance called rotten-stone; but this seems rather an adherence than a decomposition. Rotten-stone, though also used in polishing, must not be confounded with tripoli, which seems a mixture of very fine clay and sand, and is only found in veins.

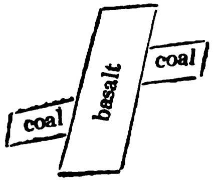
NOME XIV. D. ALABASTER.

In particular circumstances, this substance first becomes of a dull white, and then decomposes into dust.

NOME XV. D. COAL.

This substance, when in contact with what are called whin-dykes, those singular arrects or uprights which sometimes intersect whole mountains, is often observed to be decomposed; having lost its bitumen, and wearing the appearance of being charred. The Neptunists say, that the stone has absorbed the bitumen; while the [illegible] affirm that the melted stone, ejected [illegible] beneath, has caused the bitumen to evaporate.

Those immense arrects are often argillaceous, but more generally of a basaltic nature. They re sometimes of prodigious extent; one of them tending from Lothian through the estuary of e Forth into Fifeshire, a space of twelve or teen miles. It is observable, that where they tersect the coal, the beds subside in this po- tion:



which seems to evince that they rose from b
neath, having left an empty space in the dire
tion of their ascent, into which the superincu
bent bed subsided; for if a mere rupture h
taken place, the descent of any substance fro
above would not have altered the original lev
of the beds. The eruptions of clay are freque
in American volcanoes, and may arise like san
stone, from the subterranean waters, which see
of far more extent and influence than is gen
rally conceived. It ought also to be observe
if these arrects proceed in a northerly and sout
erly direction, or on any point of the compa
from S. E. to N. W.; for such seems to be t
common direction of chains of volcanoes, a
of earthquakes; as perhaps in the desiccation
this globe, and the contraction at the poles, ru
tures of different sizes took place in the she
which were afterwards filled with subterrane
waters, and combustible materials; while an e
terior crust was gradually formed, with a di
tant resemblance of those on some morasses, co
sidering the horrible chasms beneath. It is f
from the intention of this work, a mere intr
duction to the science, to support any syste
as it is of an eclectic nature, choosing t
most authentic facts, and the most solid obs
vations, from all the theories. If these ide

however, should appear to savour of volcanism, let it be considered that we are on dangerous ground; for we now approach the volcanic domain.

The decomposition and ruin of mountains forming one of the grandest features in the history of the earth, a few examples may be subjoined; which shall be introduced by some observations of the greatest of petralogists, upon this singular and important topic.

Nature of decomposition.

"Another fact, of which I discovered the solution by examining these granites close and attentively, is that of those exfoliations which I had observed in the upper valley. It is a fact known by all mineralogists, that most rocks are softer in the interior of mountains than at their external part; and that in the air they acquire a considerable degree of hardness. It hence follows that the external part, or the edge of the vertical section of a large layer of granite, ought to harden by contact with the air, whilst the interior of the same layer retains a certain degree of softness. And so long as the lower layers remain a little soft, the enormous weight of all those that rest upon them, must in time compress them. But the external parts, hardened by contact with the air, are not susceptible of the same compression. They must then separate, and thus form the exfoliations which are observable.

"This explanation acquires the highest degree of probability, when we see some of these large plates still adhering, above and below, to the layers of which they were a part, and only separated in the middle, where they form a kind of convex arch on the external side; and the identity of the substance, as well as the parallel direction of their veins with those of rocks from which they are separated, demonstrate that they have formerly been united with them."*

Rapid. The decomposition of these prodigious works of nature, the Alps, is far more rapid and incessant than might be supposed, increasing perhaps in proportion to their antiquity. The following grand and striking observation of Saussure, will not fail to impress the reader with this singular truth: "I do not exaggerate when I say that we did not pass an hour, without seeing or hearing large masses of rock precipitate themselves, with the sound of thunder, either from the sides of Mont Blanc, or the Aiguille Marbré, or from the crest on which we stood."†

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* Sauss. 1748.

† § 2048.

Ruin of Piura, or Pleurs.

Of the ruin of mountains, one of the most ancient examples recorded is that which occasioned the melancholy fate of the town of Piura, by the Swiss called Pleurs, in the county of Chiavenna; a handsome and commercial town, which was overwhelmed by the fall of Mount Conto, in 1618; when the inhabitants, in number 2430, were crushed or buried alive under the ruins*. The manufacture of ollite, which yielded to the town a revenue of 60,000 ducats, is said by some to have led to this disaster; the quarries having been so improvidently conducted as to undermine the mountain. But other writers regard it as proceeding from those natural causes, which have occasioned the fall of other mountains, in Swisserland and other countries.

Burnet introduces his account of this melancholy event by some observations on pot-stone, or ollite, which are indeed materially connected with the subject.

Ollite.

"There is a sort of pots of stone, that is used not only in all the kitchens here, but almost all Lombardy over, called *Lavege;* the stone feels oily and scaly, so that a scale sticks to one's finger that touches it, and is somewhat of the

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* Bourrit, Glaciers, iii. 120.

nature of a slate: there are but three mine
known in these parts, one near Chave
another in the Valteline, and the third i
Grisons; but the first is much the best.
generally cut it in the mine round, of al
foot and a half diameter, and about a foot
quarter thick; and they work it in a mill,
the chisels that cut the stone are driven ab
a wheel that is set a going by water, and
is so ordered, that he who manages the
very easily draws forward the wheel out
course of the water. They turn off fi
outward coat of this stone, till it is e
smooth, and then they separate one po
another by those small and hooked chise
which they make a nest of pots, all one
another; the outward and biggest being
as an ordinary beef-pot, and the inwa
being no bigger than a small pipkin: thes
arm with hooks and circles of brass, and s
are served by them in their kitchens.
these stone-pots takes heat, and boils,
than any pot of metal; and whereas the b
of metal-pots transmit the heat so entirely
liquor within, that they are not insufferab
the bottom of this stone-pot, which is

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* Chiavenna.

twice so thick as a pot of metal, burns extremely. It never cracks, neither gives any sort of taste to the liquor that is boiled in it; but if it falls to the ground, it is very brittle; yet this is repaired by patching it up: for they piece their broken pots so close, though without any cement, by sewing with iron-wire the broken parcels together, that in the holes which they pierce with the wire there is not the least breach made, except that which the wire both makes and fills. The passage to this mine is very inconvenient; for they must creep into it for near half a mile through a rock, that is so hard that the passage is not above three feet high; and so those that draw out the stones, creep all along upon their belly, having a candle fastened in their forehead, and the stone laid on a sort of cushion made for it upon their hips: the stones are commonly two hundred weight.

"But having mentioned some falls of mountains in those parts*, I cannot pass by the extraordinary fate of the town of Pleurs, that was about a league from Chavennes, to the north in the same bottom, but on a ground that is a little more raised. The town was half the bigness of

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* Rather of fragments and avalanches; and the partial ruin of Chiavenna, in the 14th century, by the fall of a cliff: p. 75.

Chavennes; the number of the inhabitants was about two and twenty hundred persons, but it was much more nobly built; for besides the great palace of the Francken, that cost some millions, there were many other palaces that were built by several rich factors, both of Milan and the other parts of Italy, who liked the situation and air, as well as the freedom of the government of this place; so they used to come hither during the heats, and here they gave themselves all the indulgences that a vast wealth could furnish. By one of the palaces that was a little distant from the town, which was not overwhelmed with it, one may judge of the rest. It was an outhouse of the family of the Francken, and yet it may compare with many palaces in Italy; and certainly house and gardens could not cost so little as one hundred thousand crowns. The voluptuousness of this place became very crying; and Madame de Salis told me, that she had heard her mother often relate some passages of a protestant minister's sermons, that preached in a little church, which those of that religion had there, and warned them often of the terrible judgments of God which were hanging over their heads, and that he believed would suddenly break out upon them. On the 25th of August, 1618, an inhabitant came and told them to be gone, for he saw the mountains cleaving; but he was laughed at for his pains. He had a daughter, whom he persuaded to leave all, and go with him; but when she was gone out of the town with him, she called to mind that she had not locked the door of a room, in which she had some things of value; and so she went back to do that, and was buried with the rest: for at the hour of supper the hill fell down, and buried the town and all the inhabitants, so that not one person escaped. The fall of the mountain did so fill the channel of the river, that the first news those of Chavennes had of it, was by the failing of their river; for three or four hours there came not a drop of water, but the river wrought for itself a new course, and returned to them. I could hear no particular character of the man who escaped, so I must leave the secret reason of so singular a preservation to the great discovery at the last day, of those steps of Divine Providence, that are now so unaccountable. Some of the family of the Francken got some miners to work under ground, to find out the wealth that was buried in their palace; for besides their plate and furniture, there was great store of cash and many jewels in the house. The miners pretended they could find nothing; but they went to their country of Tyrol, and built fine houses, and a great wealth appeared, of which no other visible account could be given but this, that they had found some of that treasure."

Mr. Coxe, in his interesting description of Swisserland, after a short account of this event, adds the following observations:

"I walked over the spot where Pleurs was built: parts of the ancient walls, and the ruins of a country-house, which belonged to the Franchi, the richest family in the place, are the only remains of its former existence; and these would not be noticed by a passenger. A peasant, who has a cottage close to the ruins, pointed out to me every place, as it had been explained to him by his grandfather. He showed me where stood the churches and principal houses, the channel through which the river then flowed, and where the bridge was constructed. He informed me, that in digging, several dead bodies had been found; particularly the bones of a priest, covered with shreds of garments, which indicated that he was employed in divine service when the rock overwhelmed the town. Household utensils are frequently dug up: the other day, several corpses were discovered, and on the finger-bone of one were a silver and two gold rings. Vineyards, chesnut-trees, and houses, cover the spot where this unfortunate town was once situated."

Diableret, 1714.

In 1714, a great part of the mountain Diableret fell. It was on the 23d of September, between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, and during the calmest weather, that the summit of this mountain fell in an instant, and covered more than a league of fertile land. Of 140 huts there only remained 40; and where the others stood, there is at present a bed of stones, about 30 yards in thickness. Four torrents were stopped, or changed their courses, and now terminate in lakes. There perished under the ruins of this mountain, eighteen persons, near one hundred cattle, with a great number of sheep, goats, and swine. Those who saw this disaster, say that it happened in a moment; and at the same time there rose whirling clouds of dust, which darkened the air like a sudden fall of night, and so much covered the neighbouring pasturages that they were obliged to withdraw the cattle. Even the adjacent mountains were wounded by the fall, which lasted for twenty-four hours. Some pretended that fire and smoke were seen; but the former arose from the collision of the siliceous fragments, and the pretended smoke was only dust; while the smell of sulphur arose from the pyrites.

To this account of honest Grouner, Bourrit has added, as usual, some picturesque circumstances.

"This ruin happened on the 23d of September; the weather was calm, the sky clear; the cattle were feeding peaceably under the shadow of these rocks; the goats, sheep, and lambs were playing in the pasture. The shepherds and shepherdesses were diverting themselves with innocent games; nothing happened to forewarn them of their terrible fate, when the mountain suddenly fell, and buried under its ruins shepherds, cattle, pasturages, and huts. The fragments of the rocks, which extended for two leagues; the smoke, which covered the sky with thick darkness; and the horrid noise, which the neighbouring mountains increased by deep and repeated echoes; all seemed to announce total ruin to the vicinity. The surprise, the terror, the lamentable outcries of men and quadrupeds, the disordered and tumultuous flight of birds, spread the alarm to a distance; and all fled from places which they could no longer know, and where they could not hope for safety. This terrible ruin destroyed considerable woods, which served as ramparts against the avalanches of snow, at present so dreadful and destructive. The rivulets which came from the mountain have lost their course, and no longer exist; so that the pasturages are become deserts, which only remind the spectator of this sudden ruin."*

This author also informs us, that, at the time of the earthquake at Lisbon, many mountains were seen to shake in the Vallais, which has remained subject to earthquakes since that period; and the town of Brigue suffered considerable damage. But in 1751, another mountain fell; and the account of this disaster shall be given in the words of Saussure; after premising that this mountain was situated not far from Passy, between Sallenches and Servoz.

Mountain near Servoz, 1751.

"Near this summit was situated a mountain, which fell in 1751, with so dreadful a noise, and so thick and dark a dust, that many people believed that the world was at an end. This black dust passed for smoke; eyes, distracted with fear, saw flames in the midst of the whirling smoke: and intelligence was received at Turin, that a terrible volcano had burst forth in the midst of these mountains, so that the king sent a celebrated naturalist, Vitaliano Donati, to verify that report. He came with great diligence, before the rocks had completely fallen, so that he was witness of a part of that event. He gave the king a memoir of his observations: and a brief account is contained in a letter to one of his friends, of which I possess the original, dated 15th October, 1751, and of which a translation follows:

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* Grouner, Glac. de Suise, Paris, 1770, 4to. p. 138. Bourrit, ii. 98.

'I left Turin on the 16th July, and only returned within these few days. I was in the valley of Aosta; and I was in hopes of being in Venice in September and October. But I was obliged to turn back, and make a tour of 250 leagues in the mountains, to observe the pretended new volcano, according to an order which I received from his majesty. I confess, that though I doubted the truth of the fact, nevertheless, hoping that I had deceived myself, I hurried with extreme pleasure to observe so extraordinary a phenomenon. After having travelled four days and two nights without halting, I came in front of a mountain all covered with smoke; and from which were incessantly detached, by day and by night, large masses of stone, with a noise perfectly like that of thunder, or of a large battery of cannon; but still louder and more terrible. The peasants had all retired from the vicinity; and did not dare to look at this ruin, but at the distance of two miles, and even farther. All the neighbouring fields were covered with a dust much resembling ashes; and in some spots this dust had been carried by the winds to the distance of five leagues. All said that they had seen, at intervals, a smoke which was red during the day, and accompanied with flames at night. These observations led people to believe that it was a volcano. But I examined the pretended ashes; and only found a dust composed of brayed marble: I attentively observed the smoke, and neither perceived flames, nor any smell of sulphur; nor did the rivulets, nor fountains, which I examined with care, present the least appearance of sulphuric matter. Thus persuaded, I entered into the smoke, and, though quite alone, went to the brink of the abyss, where I saw a large rock dart into that abyss, and observed that the smoke was only dust, raised by the fall of the rocks; the cause of which I soon after sought for and discovered. I saw that a great part of the mountain, situated above that which had fallen, was composed of earth and stones, not disposed in beds, but confusedly heaped together. I thus perceived that the mountain had been subject to similar falls; at the end of which the large rock, which fell this year, had remained without a support, and with a considerable projection. This rock was composed of horizontal beds, of which the two lower were of slate, or rather of fragile schistose stone, and of little consistency; while the two beds beneath these were of a marble, like that of Porto Venere, but full of rifts which crossed the beds. The fifth bed was wholly composed of slate, in vertical leaves, entirely disunited; and this bed formed all the upper part of the fallen mountain. Upon the same level summit there were three lakes, of which the waters penetrated constantly by the fissures of the beds, separated them, and decomposed their supports. The snow, which this year had fallen in Savoy in so great abundance as had never been seen in the memory of man, having increased the effort, all these waters reunited produced the fall of three millions of cubic fathoms of rock; a mass sufficient to form a large mountain. In the narrative which I have written of the fall of this mountain, and which I sent to his majesty, with a view of the mountain, I have given a more detailed account of the cause and effect of this ruin; and I foretold that it would cease in a short time, as has actually happened; so that thus I have extinguished a volcano."

Saussure proceeds to inform us, that the ruins of this mountain are situated to the north-east of the village of Servoz. Besides the sandstone

y described*, Saussure observed rocks of
arble, and fragments of slate.

Rosenberg, 1806.

h are some of the most remarkable exam-
' this phenomenon. In 1806, the moun-
'Rosberg, or Rosenberg, near the town of
fell down, and buried a considerable tract
ntry, with some inhabitants. A detailed
nt of this event was published at Paris,
hree plates, representing, 1. the town of
the neighbouring country, and the profile
ruin; 2. the same scene in front, with the
of the fall; 3. the lake and tower of
ts, with Roggiberg and Rosenberg†.

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n. II. Mode xiv.
niere relation du triste désastre, causé par l'eboulement d'une
Roggiberg, et du Rosberg; de trente pages d'etendue,
gnée de trois gravures, proprement terminées en noir, de 10
haut, sur 15 *de large. Chez Villequin, march. d'estampes,*
ur du Tribunat, No. 20. 9 *fr.*
emiere represente le beau bourg d'Arth, les campagnes qui
nt, et le profil du l'eboulement: La seconde, l'immense
ue, et triste tombeau, d'une partie des habitans, de la vallée
t l'eboulement vu de face. La troisieme, le lac et la tour de
le Roggiberg, et le Rosberg.

[illegible]

DOMAIN XII.

VOLCANIC.

◆

Volcanoes numerous. THE volcanic rocks may be said, w
German mineralogists, to be of th
modern formation, as every new e
of about one hundred and fifty vol
scattered over the face of the globe
produce new rocks of this desc
That there are also volcanoes at the

of the sea, we know, from the ejection of new islands in the seas of Greece; and in the Atlantic near Iceland, and the Azores. It may therefore be considered as a most rational conclusion, that, as the ocean occupies two-thirds of this globe, numerous volcanoes may exist at such depths, that their effects are wholly unperceivable. Dolomieu seems to have demonstrated that the matter, which supplies the prodigious eruptions of volcanoes, must lie at an immense depth beneath the crust of the earth. This position may be argued, 1. from the surprising extent of earthquakes, felt from Lisbon to Scotland, a space of 15 degrees, or about 1000 British miles. 2. From the prodigious quantity of matter ejected in the course of ages; from the comparatively small craters of Etna, for example, whole mountains, nay territories have issued; which, if drawn from a space near the surface, the mountain must long since have sunk into its own abysses. 3. From the nature of the lava, which, in some instances, has burst through the superincum-

Depth of fuel.

bent masses of granite, itself regarded the fundamental rock.

Candour necessary.

As it is foreign to the nature of this wor to examine with much attention the theories of volcanoes, it shall only be observed that the French authors, in treating the origin of basaltin and amygdalite, seem to be rather too much attached to the volcanic influence; yet we, on the other hand, seem to be too violently prejudiced against the admission of that influence. Prejudice on either side, is not only ridiculous, a the subject is of no importance to huma life or happiness, but as a direct contradiction to the very spirit and nature of philosophy, which ought to examine any topi with complete candour and impartiality nay, a writer who means sincerely to serv the sacred cause of truth, which must i the end ever be victorious, would rathe for a season, support an opinion the mo opposite to prejudice, that the light may usual be struck out by the collision of co tending powers.

Many extinct.

When we consider the great number

volcanoes that are still active on that third part of our planet which consists of land, is it not most rational to suppose that many may have become extinct? Strabo informs us, that Vesuvius had been a volcano at a remote period; while its first eruption is commonly ascribed to the reign of Titus, near a century after the time of that author*. The volcanoes of Auvergne seem to have been relumed for a short period, in the time of Sidonius Apollinaris, whose *culmina* can scarcely be applied except to the summits of mountains; for the tops of houses would be foreign to his emphatic and alarming description. Auvergne alone has indeed convinced every Neptunist, who has visited that interesting country, that volcanoes may become extinct; and may, perhaps, again surprise the unbeliever with an unexpected appearance. The wonderful volcano of Jorullo, in New Spain, burst out about half a century ago, in the midst of a fertile and luxuriant plain; but, as has been observed, in the precise line of direction of the other volcanoes in that country; whence it has been argued, that there is a chasm, at an amazing depth, filled with subterranean water and combustible materials. For the American volcanoes are generally very distant from the sea*, and their eruptions of mud can only be imputed to subterranean waters, often very extensive; as is observed from digging wells in the north of Italy, near twenty miles around Modena, where, on arriving

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* Lib. v. This remarkable passage may be thus translated: "Here arises the mountain of Vesuvius, inhabited through all its delicious fields, the summit alone excepted, which spreads into a barren plain, displaying ashes and deep caverns formed of burnt rock, as the colour indicates, and abrasions by fire; whence it may be conjectured that this mountain was formerly in a state of efflagation and presented fiery craters, which became extinguished when the materials were exhausted." He proceeds to state, that the fields near Etna were equally fertile. The streets of Herculaneum were paved with lava.

See also, Strabo, lib. i. p. 158. edit. Siebenkees, for a volcano, now extinct, near Methone, which ejected a hill near a mile in height, and rocks like towers.

Pindar describes Etna, which is unmentioned by Homer, a proof that his geographical knowledge did not extend as far as Sicily, and that the received interpretations are false.

Chasms.

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* Even those of the Andes are from eighty to one hundred miles; so that a late writer is much mistaken when he supposes them near the ocean, and influenced by sea-water instead of subterranean lakes.

at a certain crust, the water gushes out with prodigious violence. If this vast chasm, therefore, be covered with such a lasting shell of fertile land, it is easy to conceive the existence of similar cavities in many parts of this globe. For we are not to imagine that the immense mass which forms the nucleus, and which from its gravity would appear to be iron, presents a uniform surface; but may, on the contrary, bear fissures deeper than the ocean, and asperities or precipices higher than mountains. Hence the grand observation of Saussure, his *refoulements*[*], may be construed into a subsidence of the beds at one extremity, owing to irregularities on the surface of the nucleus, and which of course elevated them at the other extremity; while the secondary rocks, the level or horizontal of Werner, finding the asperities already

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[*] "Examiner en général si les couches presentent des indices de soulevements, ou de refoulements violents, qui aient changé leur situation primitive; ou si, au contraire tous, et les redressements même des couches, peuvent s'expliquer par de simples affaissements." § 2314.

filled, of course retain their regular fo
ation.

But if, with Dolomieu, we conceive
this planet only presents a shell spi
over a fluid centre, it would be difficul
explain why this central lava should c
burst forth in particular spots and di
tions; for it might equally appear in e
portion of the globe. Theories, w
only afford sublime speculations on
vast varieties of nature, and the infi
power of the ineffable Creator, canno
greatly blamed, even when they do
lead to incontestible conclusions; and
hoped that an inference arising from
preceding considerations may be hazar
namely, that volcanoes owe their origi
fissures, more or less extensive, in the
nucleus of our planet; and that these
sures always remaining, the causes of e
tion may be withdrawn or renewed.
theory might reconcile most of the
trines on the subject, except the pu
ideas of those Wernerians who have n
visited volcanic countries, and who im

no such appearance has ever struck
ost attentive and rigid observers; and
e bed of coal, near Dysert, has been
re since the days of Buchanan, the
without even the mockery of a vol-
An idea, which tends to degrade
ower and magnificence of nature, can
be true; and, when we seriously re-
on the daily circumvolution of this
t, it is impossible to find a greater
le. In complicated scenes there must
plicated causes; but does not the
l exhibition of volcanoes arise from
al gunpowder?*

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he common subterranean noise of Cotopacsi, may be heard at
ce of the space between Vesuvius and Dijon, in Burgundy,
g to Humboldt: and Bouguer, p. lxvi, informs us that the
cano has thrown stones, of 8 or 9 feet in diameter, to the
of 9 miles.

The existence of such chasms being once admitted, it would be easy to account why basalt always appears in volcanic countries; since, even on the supposition of the French mineralogists, particularly Patrin, these chasms must have supplied volcanic materials, under the primeval waters, or what may be called a state of chaos; for Patrin supposes that basaltin, compact or columnar, but especially the latter, may be the produce of submarine volcanoes, the matter being suddenly congealed, and brought to a most compact form by the prodigious pressure of the ocean. Daubuisson, a rigid and determined Neptunist, after visiting Auvergne, was inclined to suppose, as already mentioned, that the basaltin on the summits of the German mountains was a volcanic remain of inconceivable antiquity. Reuss also concluded that the basaltic summits of Bohemia were only fragments of a mass, which had once clothed a prodigious territory. In like manner, caps of mountains sometimes present masses of sandstone, or limestone;

Basaltic summits.

while none exist in the adjacent country. Whether this effect could be produced by currents at the bottom of the primeval waters (and similar currents continue to be observed in many seas), which, by their continual action, abraded the lower parts, without reaching the summits of these then submarine hills; or from whatever other cause this effect may have proceeded, must for ever remain among the inscrutable secrets of nature, which despise the puny efforts of human intellect. Perhaps it may simply arise from the circumstance that these portions, sometimes from their position, and sometimes from internal causes, may have been harder than the rest of the mass, and thus have remained like some large fragments of granite, after the softer parts had wasted away. However this be, we must never, in geological discussions, forget the amazing power of time, which enables the water to destroy the hardest rocks; and which, though important in the short period of human life, may be said to be nothing, in the eternity of Him, with whom a thousand ages are but as one instant.

Effects of water.

Iron and silex.

Felspar.

In general, the effect of fire only is considered in volcanoes; but the curious volcano of mud in Sicily, and the muddy eruptions of the Andes, should excite more attention to the agency of water. If we conceive the volcanic chasms, containing, as already mentioned, reservoirs of water, as well as of inflammable substances, to be in the nucleus of the globe; and that nucleus to consist of iron, mingled at least superficially with its usual attendant silex, the ferruginous nature of lava can easily be explained, as arising from an abrasion of the nucleus by the water. For, passing the minuter appearances, which only excite curiosity, and are exceptions, not rules; all lavas may be said to consist of iron and silex; the most common being the black, of mėlted siderite; while the others, of a grey colour, have a base of silex in the form of felsite. But felspar is a name of far too general acceptation; and may probably, in the progress of mineralogy, be divided into six or more denominations, to be determined by future analyses: for its extent and importance are prodigious, constituting two-thirds of granitic mountains, and appearing in many other forms, which seem to indicate a substantial difference in the siliceous rocks, now included under the vague name of felspar.

Lava.

These introductory observations have thus conducted us to the more immediate object of this work: the consideration of the lavas themselves.

Compact lava.

The existence of compact lava, forms one of the most curious questions between the Volcanists and the Neptunists. In strict impartiality, the observations of Mr. Kirwan, the chief defender of the Neptunian system, shall be admitted at full length; more especially as they may lead to very important observations.

Mr. Kirwan's opinion.

By compact lava, volcanic writers denote an earthy substance, which, after having been fused, but not vitrified, becomes, on cooling, compact, close, and solid.

“ Whether this degree of solidity is such as totally to exclude that evidently porous and cavernous structure, which cellular lava presents, is not perfectly agreed upon.

“ Those who are guided by observation on modern and undisputed volcanic torrents, allow that no lava absolutely compact, and destitute of pores in an extent of more than a few square inches, is ever found. Thus Mr. Bergman defines compact lavas to be ‘ those which, though not absolutely destitute of cavities, yet contain so few, that they may be cut into slabs with an almost entire surface, and polished like marble,’ 3 Bergm. p. 201. To this definition, M. Dolomieu, in his notes on Bergman's dissertation, makes no objection ; from which we may conclude, that in a small extent, such as that of common marble slabs, they never exhibit an uninterrupted surface. This last mentioned philosopher, indeed, having unfortunately wished to comprehend, in his definition of compact lava, stony masses, not found in modern and undisputed beds of lava, but in supposed ancient currents, found himself much embarrassed: 'There is,' says he, 'such uncertainty in the characters of compact lava, that independently of local circumstances, the most experienced eye may be deceived*.' Yet these circumstances not properly attended to, are those which have seduced him into the most palpable mistakes.

"Gioeni, though in many instances misled by Dolomieu, yet acknowledges that lava, so compact as to be totally destitute of pores, is not to be found. Litholog. Vesuv. p. 85†. Padre Torre, who, independently of any system, has candidly and impartially examined the products of Vesuvius, expressly denies the existence of lava destitute of pores; none other but the porous being found of modern date‡. Galeani, in his catalogue of the lavas of Vesuvius, drawn up in 1772, hardly men-

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[*] Isles Ponces, 171.

[†] (It is 157; but not expressly.—P.)

[‡] Ponces, 174.

in the cabinet of

“ Those, on the othe
by system, bestow the
stony masses which the
anciently flowed, either
sisting, or imaginary ar
canoes, find compact lav
of pores, very scarce i
posed currents from mo
plenty in those which th
fictitious volcanoes now
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“ Gioeni after telling u
that compact lava occup
the beds of lava, and poro
part, acknowledges that t
dom takes place: ‘ few, l
‘ are the visible currents
in which

dern volcanoes have lost the power of producing any*.' The detached masses that pass for compact lava, he acknowledges to have been ejected in their solid form, by the explosive power of the volcano; and consequently they are not real lavas, but rather natural stones, torn from the sides of the mountain†. M. Dolomieu tells us, that compact lavas are stones, which, after having been melted, reassume their natural state and appearance, without any change in their external or internal properties, or scarce any change‡; and that some are perfectly compact (that is, destitute of pores); namely, those that are buried under, not other lavas, but under an entire and immense volcano§; he therefore gives up the idea of finding these, not only in the beds of modern, but even in those of extinct ancient volcanoes. Hence he tells us, that they are much more common in

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* Lithol. Vesuv. p. 47.

† Ibid. 51.

‡ Dei prodotti Volcan. p. 162. Ponces, 170, &c.

§ Ibid. 179.

extinct volcanoes; and that in Etna th
do not constitute the one thousandth pa
of the whole; whereas, in Vivarois an
Auvergne, they form whole mountain
Now most of these ancient volcanoes of th
Vivarois, appear to me, and many other
to be mere creatures of imagination; an
consequently, until the substances the
contain are proved to have been in fusion
no definition, grounded on the appea
ances of these substances, can pass fo
that of real compact lava*.

"In beds, however, of real undispute
lava, some parts are found, that havin
been pressed by the superincumbent weigh
are more compact than common porou
lava, and these, comparatively to the fo
mer, may be called compact; but scarcel
more than a few square inches of their sul
stance is destitute of visible pores.

"Their colour is brown, yellowish, reddis
brown, bluish, or black, more rarely gre
Their lustre 0,1. Transparency 0,1.

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* (See, on the contrary, the remarks of another Neptunist, D
buisson, in Dom. I.—P.)

"Their fracture, earthy, or fine splintery, more rarely foliated, and presents small internal pores, if of sufficient size, in some part of their substance.

"Hardness, from 7 to 9. Specific gravity, 2,75 to 2,88.

"Much circumspection is requisite, in framing a description of compact lava, from a view of the specimens brought to us from volcanic countries; as they are all collected by persons who take indiscriminately from real, and from supposed, volcanic currents, even from mountains in which no volcano ever existed.

"To form a true idea of these lavas, we should attend to the following circumstances:

"1st. That the heat of most volcanoes (I exclude those that for the most part produce only vitrified substances) seldom reaches 100 degrees of Wedgewood; the proof of which is, that almost all real lavas, whether cellular or compact, are vitrifiable at that degree. Since, therefore, they were not vitrified in the volcano, it is plain that in it they did not attain that degree; 90 or 95 degrees may then be assumed as the average heat of most volcanoes.

"2d. In this heat, many stones of the argillaceous genus, as traps, hornblendes, and argillites, undergo a change; for they alter their colour, become porous, assume a porcelain grain, and consequently begin to vitrify, as I have found on repeated trials; but they never flow in this heat, nor consequently form a lava; but bitumen will flow in this heat, and even in one much inferior, and be decomposed. If, therefore, the argillaceous stones be mixed with, and drenched in bitumen, they will be softened by it, and flow with it; and where the air, erupting both from them and the decomposing bitumen, has most liberty to escape, it will tumify, burst through the liquid mass, and form cellular lava; but where it is more compressed, less of it will be disengaged, and the lava will be compact, and resemble in some degree the original stone of which it is formed.

"3d. Stones of the siliceous genus undergo no change in this heat, not even schorls or felspars; and hence, though immersed in the fiery torrent, they cannot with propriety be called lavas; as they are not even softened by the mixture of bitumen, as stones of the argillaceous genus are.

" Between siliceous and argillaceous stones there are many gradations, and various mixtures, which must occasion corresponding varieties in the effects which heat, and various other circumstances, may produce. It is sufficient here to establish the principles on which most of them may be explained. Compact lavas abound in heterogenous substances, which have either not been fused, or only partially fused, or scorched, or decomposed by heat, as felspar, schorls, garnets, zeolites, &c. Every volcano has some that are peculiar to it. Thus the lavas of Vesuvius abound in that called white garnet, and which I call Vesuvian; those of Etna abound in felspar, &c.

" Hence we must exclude from the rank

of lavas, all stones which do not a
either from their external charact
local circumstances, ever to have
softened by heat; and consequent
those detached pieces which are ejec
the beginning of an eruption without f
and many others which volcanic coll
enumerate among compact lavas, n
from having found them in the vicin
volcanoes. Thus M. Dolomieu, Lip
reckons among volcanic stones one,
interior of which he distinctly percei
leaf of sea-weed. Few indeed ar
stones contained in his catalogue,
can be deemed really volcanic: and
of the same treatise, he tells us, th
lava which burst from the sides of Et
1669, had for its basis a granite, n
altered; but when he expressly tre
the products of Etna, he tells us, *L*
paroit n'avoir jamais traité le granite.
mistakes of this great man, for such
tainly hold him, have had so wide a s
and have misled so many who hav
had an opportunity of viewing vol

countries, that I feel myself necessitated to detect them; a liberty which, I am persuaded, his candour and love of truth will readily induce him to excuse.

"All real lavas, except those of the vitreous kind, affect the magnetic needle, unless the iron they contain be much oxygenated, as it often is in those of a red colour; but even these are frequently magnetic, by reason of the schorls embodied in them.

"The component ingredients of lavas are various, according to the nature of the original stones, and the accidents they meet with in the liquified state. M. Dolomieu found them to contain from 40 to 60 per cent. of silex, from 16 to 3 of magnesia, from 5 to 1 of lime, and from 6 to 25 of iron. Ponces, 184."*

These reflections are certainly cogent, and worthy of the sagacious author, who has rendered great services to the science:

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* Kirwan, Min. i. 404.

nor must we, in the modern spirit of ingratitude, nor even of

> Th' unwilling gratitude of base mankind,

Other opinions.

Dolomieu inaccurate.

forget the state of mineralogy at the time he wrote, because superior illumination has since been thrown on many topics. On the other side, the works of Dolomieu on the Lipari Islands, on those called Ponces, near the Gulf of Naples, and on the volcanic productions of Etna, were written before he had attained much experience in lithology. This truth lamentably appears from the latter production, where two or three passages demonstrate that he did not even know what granite is[*]; yet we are told that exact nomenclature, and the precise knowledge of particular stones, are not necessary in geology; which is as much as to say, that Botany can only be studied in the roots, or Zoology from the legs of animals; that History may be studied in a book of chronology; or that, in short, any science may be attained with complete inattention to its chief objects. For a laborious study, and even the most nice discrimination of lithologic characteristics, is indispensable; otherwise the keystone may happen to be the weakest, and the whole edifice may sink in ruins. The treatises of Dolomieu on different rocks, published some years after in the Journal de Physique, though tedious, prolix, and ill-digested, like all his writings, are the best and most scientific of his productions. But, on the other hand, our celebrated mineralogist is certainly mistaken, when he asserts that siliceous stones undergo no change in the heat of volcanoes; for the white or grey lavas, with a base of felspar, are among the most common, and are sometimes interspersed with mica, so as to show that the parent rock was a felspar mixed with that substance; while the mottled or dotted appearance of the lava is such a never occurs in any natural rock. Th quantity of potash recently discovered i felspar, sufficiently accounts for its fusibility. Nor, so far as the perusal of most works on the subject can conduct to an opinion, is the power of volcanic heat to be computed from a few examples; while it is sometimes, on the contrary, demonstrable to be very intense.

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[*] In p. 201, he tells us that the *base* of granite, consists of massive felspar: and p. 257, he mistook a mixture of schorl, felspar, and chrysolite, for a granite. Equal errors may be found in many books of geology; a study which totally depends on a previous acquaintance with petralogy and lithology. Dolomieu was a military man, who at an advanced age entered on this difficult study.

Compact lava dubious.

It is truly singular that, in the state of a science so much advanced since the time of Dolomieu, specimens of compact lava do not abound in every cabinet; and that the subject has not been completely investigated; but attention has been diverted to crystallography, which may be called the entomology of the science, while the grandest objects of nature are neglected. Dolomieu positively allows that what he calls the basaltic columns, chiefly observable on the eastern side of Etna, are composed of a lava, " of which the most compact morsels are not exempt from some little round pores, easily discoverable with a lens*." In this they differ from basaltin, one of the most compact substances in nature; though Werner himself marks its contexture as cellular, or vesicular. Even in the purest substances, as glass, the marks of fusion by heat remain in little globular cavities. But that the question has not been examined with due care and sagacity, will appear from another observation.

Basaltic columns compared with lava.

The beautiful forms of basaltic columns have, on a first review, been compared with the fissures arising from the desiccation of starch, and some argillaceous substances. But the comparison is in fact of the most careless kind, and arises from a distant resemblance, as if a trunk of a tree were compared with a Corinthian column. The accurate eye of Pictet has observed, and he has engraved a most distinctive characteristic of the columns of the Giants causey, unobserved by all writers on the subject; which is, that the joints of the columns are not only inserted in each other by hemispherical protuberances and concavities, but that the corners of one joint rise into what may be called triangular mortices, nicely adapted to receive the next joint, which appears as if cut for that purpose*. Patrin showed me, at Paris, and has engraved in his mineralogy, specimens of Siberian emerald, with similar protuberances and concavities; the former sometimes admitting of being detached when it assumes the form of an irregular oval. But no one has doubted that these emeralds are crystallised by water; and Patrin makes the curious observation, that when they are broken in the mine, they are soft as an apple, "and the two fractures are covered with a fluid of an unctuous appearance, and penetrating smell, which evaporated quicker than a drop of ether:"† but exposure to the air for a few

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* Etna, p. 192.

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[*] Da Costa, however, had observed and engraved the same appearances, in 1757. See his Fossils, p. 256, and the plate.

[†] Min. ii. 33. From this and other circumstances, detailed in various parts of his work, Patrin argues for a kind of mineral life. He might have rather said that God fills all space.

Mens agitat molem, et magno se corpore miscet.

hours, rendered them quite hard. It might hence appear, that to carry the chemical analysis of mineral substances to the greatest perfection, means should be contrived to preserve their natural softness while in the bowels of the earth, either by instant immersion in naptha, or by other means of excluding the air. This simple attention might perhaps lead to very curious and important discoveries; which might gradually conduct us to rival nature herself in the combination of the most precious minerals.

To return, as the crystallisation of emeralds has never been denied, so it would appear that the yet more curious and refined articulations of basaltin cannot be ascribed to any other cause. The columns of sandstone, and other substances, and it is suspected even the columnar lava of Etna and other volcanoes, cannot be compared with this consummate, and, so to speak, artificial architecture; for nature is the art of God. A prejudiced eye would find identity; but if no such forms be observable in the columnar lavas, a rational argument would arise that the basaltic columns have a different origin. Such is the nature of lithology, that a very minute difference sometimes constitutes a wide distinction; and Werner's system of external characters rests on little tints and shades, for which his sagacity found expressions; while many of them have been known before by experienced miners, who felt and knew what they could not express; as a shepherd cannot impart the knowledge by which he can discern any one sheep among a thousand, a trivial circumstance in pastural countries.

Origins of basaltin.

The final opinion of Dolomieu, in which he is joined by Spallanzani, who visited the volcanic regions of Italy with great care, though not perhaps with a sufficient experience in lithology, was that basaltin may be produced either in the humid way, o by volcanic fire. In submarine volcanoe if we listen to the French mineralogists, might be ejected by heat, and crystallis in a more compact and beautiful fo

it assumes when it only enters the
es of the sea. It always seems to
another singularity, which must not
rgotten, namely, an arid and dead
rance, ranking it with the stones
by the Italians *pietri morti;* while
substances indescribably belong to
is called the living rock.

the opinion, therefore, of the greatest
alogists, we are only authorised to
ler as compact lavas those which
very small pores; for volcanic ba-
, though admitted by Dolomieu and
nzani, is exposed to all the tempests
ptune and his followers. Masses and
ns of basaltin, brought from well
n lavas of whatever antiquity, would
form a barrier against their attacks.
ict examination of the supposed ba-
columns of Etna, where its vast lavas
the sea, might also lead to some con-
ns, whether the opinion of those phi-
ers be just, who argue that basaltin
ays a volcanic product, its compact-
rising from its formation under the pri-

can be more rational t
canoes not only existe
globe, as they are no
the vast depths of the
must have been far m
of greater power, than
tranquil state of the el

Ferrara's system.

Ferrara, the intellige
tural philosophy in th
tania, has just publishe
the volcanoes of Sicily,
isles[†]. This treatise is

---

[*] In his grand and surprising cours
is said to have produced an artificial vo
enclosing a mixture of potassium, iron,
smoke, flame, and lava, issued from th
ceives, may exist in a metallic state in
combined with water, may become e
tinents.

[†] *I Campi Flegrei della Sicilia, e de*

in the history of mineralogy, as it seems to decide some points which were before doubtful, and throws fresh light on many of the most interesting topics of the science. After a long and patient investigation of all the lavas in Sicily, and the neighbouring isles, he has opposed the opinions of Dolomieu; whom he justly regards as a cursory visitor, who would have retracted many of his remarks, if he had simply twice visited the same objects, the first ideas being often corrected by the second. After a sedulous attention of many years, Ferrara denies that there are any prisms whatever, in any lava which has erupted since Sicily emerged from the primeval ocean. But he is at the same time as decided in his opinion, that all basaltic columns are the product of primeval submarine volcanoes. This position he does

Submarine volcanoes.

1810, 4to. "The Burning Fields of Sicily and the surrounding isles, or a Physical and Mineralogical Description of these Islands, by Abbé F. Ferrara, principal Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Royal University of Catania, Doctor of Philosophy and Medicine, and Member of several literary Societies. Messina, from the Press of the British Army, 1810." pp. 424.

not seem to have borrowed from the Frenc mineralogists, but to have adopted fro his own observation. For this inferenc which to some may seem arbitrary, an even visionary, is founded on an indubitable fact that currents of lava, perfectl identic with that of the historical and late ages, are found covered, and often eve alternating, with products universally allowed to have been deposited by the primeval waters, such as thick beds of chal and limestone, sometimes compact, sometimes conchitic.

Construction of Sicily.

By his account, and the mineralogica map which accompanies his work, th whole of Sicily appears to be calcareou except the mountains of Peloro, in th north-east corner, which consist of gre granite, often covered with a bed of limestone. In that quarter, near a hundred mines were formerly wrought, producing abundance of silver, copper, and lead. The limestone of Sicily is often in the form of what he calls *creta*, by which he doe not seem precisely to understand chalk but perhaps that kind of earthy limestone, which appears under the Giant's causey in Ireland, and which has also been called chalk. In other parts there are extensive layers of keralite, which occasionally, by his account, passes into the beautiful agates and jaspers, for which Sicily is famous; as it is for its singular marbles, seemingly affected by the volcanic vapours. The chalk he regards as the base of Etna itself, which he considers as being entirely a volcanic mass of a hundred miles in circuit, ejected by the prodigious extent of internal fermentation, which since the creation has agitated Sicily and the adjacent isles and coast of Italy; and which must exist, as he infers, at a depth almost inconceivable*. The question of the intensity of volcanic heat, he regards as merely depending on circumstances, being sometimes great, sometimes moderate; and the quantity of liquid lava may be esteemed a standard of the activity of the fire. His estimate of volcanic products is the reverse of that of Faujas, being extremely simple and confined; and he confirms the idea which I have long since advanced, that all lavas consist of siderite and felsite. The former, with Saussure and other writers, he calls *pietre cornee*, being a *corneus* of Wallerius[*].

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* P. 141, 409.

The study of extinct volcanoes he considers as, perhaps, more interesting to the naturalist, than that of the active[†]. Not only has Vesuvius been repeatedly quite extinct for centuries; but even the tremendous and eternal Etna was quiescent from 1447 till 1537. The basaltic prisms, as already mentioned, he regards as the undoubted products of submarine volcanoes; and his account of their origin may more accurately be expressed in his own words.

Origin of basaltin.

"As a perfect dissolution is necessary in order to form perfect crystals, so a perfect fluidity is required in stony substances, that in their consolidation, after their dissolution by fire, they may assume the forms to which they have a natural tendency. It cannot be denied that many modern lavas have all the fluidity of which they are capable: what circumstance then has permitted the *ancient*[*] lavas sometimes to assume the form of prisms, which is entirely denied to the modern?

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[*] P. 291, 343, 173.

[†] "Lo studio dei volcani ardenti non essere il solo che possa perfezionare la scienza; che quello degli estinti è, a certi riguardi, più fecondo di lumi, e non meno del primo degno dell' attenzione, e della premura del Naturalista." *Disc. Prel. p. iv.*

"A lava which rises from the bottom of the sea, must be consolidated in a shorter or longer time by the cold contact of the water. The lava being thus amassed around the orifice, while the subterranean ferment continues, or is even augmented, the elastic vapours, acting from beneath, must break the upper surface, and occasion the lava to accumulate on itself. The sides, however, remaining always consolidated, at length the mass appears above the waters; and the crater which rises above the waves, communicating with the source of the fire, which cannot be inundated, may thus continue its *explosions.* In this manner were formed, even in our times, many isles in the Grecian archipelago; and in this manner must have been formed the Eolian isles, and other volcanic rocks around Sicily. Finally, when the efflagration ceased, the lava which formed the great mass upon the bottom of the sea, while it was surrounded on all sides with a thick arrect of the same matter (now cold and a very bad conductor of the internal fire, which ought to assume the temperature of the water), now enclosed, both beneath and above, with the same lava, remains in the internal gulf, in the most perfect fluidity that it can receive from fire, to which it has been so long exposed, and in a condition to suffer all the activity of the subterranean furnace. It is very probable that the lava in this recipient, having the necessary time, space, and tranquillity, irregular, and pass into the amorphous lava. At the Motta, already mentioned, they are about two feet in diameter, partly vertical partly inclined. At the bottom of the colonade the peasants made an aperture, where, on introducing the hand, heat was perceived, and the hand smelled of sulphur. Above are great masses of sand, red drosses, and puzzolana; and he infers that the prisms are in the centre of the volcanic mass. It may be said indeed, that heat thus enclosed becomes inextinguishable; and he mentions that, two years ago, the lava of 1669 being perforated at Catania, flames issued; and within these eight years it yielded, after rain, smoke and great heat. This lava is about two hundred feet in depth, and two miles in breadth, and had run about fifteen miles. Other basaltic columns appear near Bronte, on the west of Etna, which gave a title to the glorious Nelson. They are in beautiful hexagonal groups, which disappear in the incumbent chalk or earthy limestone. Some not only project from one centre, but are bent as if to cover a convex surface. On the east of Etna, the rock of the Cyclops, here also engraved, presents on its east side beautiful columns of primeval lava, disposed in the form of an organ, like the Organ Rock near the giants' causey. Near the castle of Aci, the ancient Acis, are found masses of lava in balls, with concentric layers, eight or ten inches in diameter, involved in a bed of bluish volcanic glass. The superincumbent limestone has infiltrated and crystallised in the little cavities of the glass. A reddish baked clay also appears, and little prisms of lava about two inches in length. In the neighbourhood volcanic balls are also found in tufa, with fragments of lava, glass, drosses, and sand. They are generally about six inches in diameter, and often break into regular pyramids, which are joined in the centre as in balls of pyrites; which, he might have added, marks the same influence of iron*.

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[*] By this word he always understands, as he explains himself, the primeval submarine volcanoes.

He supposes, p. 289, that the rocks are rendered fluid by elastic vapours, *vapori elastici*; and, *from their resemblance to rivers*, are, *like them*, called *lavine* or *lave*. Does he refer to the Sicilian dialect? In pure Italian, *lavare* is to wash, or water.

No modern lava prismatic. Our learned author totally denies, even ı opposition to his friend Spallanzani, that ıe modern lavas on the east of Etna asıme the prismatic form when they reach ıe sea ; and regards this opinion as a mere lusion arising from the fissures common in morphous lavas, and which may be equaly observed in those that are inland. " I nust therefore repeat," says he, " that the prismatic lavas around Etna, do not belong to the modern eruptions of that volcano, but to the ancient volcanoes under the ocean ; and that modern lavas, whether on the land or in the sea, and under whatever circumstances, never pass into regular forms ; but only appear in shapeless masses, or in such accidental shapes as arise from their site or refrigeration. Two or three prisms which I have found of modern lava near Mount Finocchio, on the upland skirts of Etna, and some small ones in the clefts beneath, must, from their singularity, e ascribed to an accident, which can never stablish a general system : and I am of pinion that to the same accident may be scribed the two or four prisms, which some naturalists have found in other modern lavas; and the great difference ought to be remembered between these scarce trifles, and the vast masses of prisms, groups of columns, and fascicular assemblages, of which even the fragments tend to regular divisions, which constitute their characteristic quality."*

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* P. 95, 116, 123, 135, 137.

Even the amorphous lava of the primeval period is very compact, sprinkled with filiform crystals of felspar, and some of siderite, with grains of chrysolite. That of Cape Passaro takes a beautiful polish. "The prismatic lavas are very hard and compact, and always of a dull ashy colour, or a bluish black; and I have never observed any pores in prismatic lava."† Among these primeval products is also found black or blue obsidian, sometimes in fragments, sometimes in tables in the slits of the lava, and sometimes concave, as enveloping balls of lava. Fragments are also found partly glass and partly lava, the former appearing in delicate veins. While the lava is decomposed into black ferruginous earth, the obsidian passes into a light ashy substance. The bubbles and cavities are full of calcareous spar, while others, though rarely, present confused crystals of white and semitransparent quartz*.

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* P. 144. He had before said, p. 112, "In generale posso dire che le lave prismatiche, le lave basaltine, i basalti, che sono intorno alla base dell' Etna appartengono agli ANTICHI VOLCANI, e non mai alle eruzione moderne di questo volcano."

† P. 176.

In fine, our laborious and intelligent author concludes that " those Neptunists, who deny the volcanic origin of the basaltic columns of Sicily, must never have observed them, else they might have seen them surrounded with amorphous lava of the same identic paste, and often continuous with them; and must have seen in the mass fissures which indicate regular divisions."† Such is this important work of Ferrara, which must be pronounced one of the most solid and judicious that has yet appeared upon the subject.

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* P. 177, 179, &c.

† P. 316.

If the observations on this curious topic, which has so long occupied scientific men, should in this and other parts of the work sometimes appear contradictory, let it be regarded as a proof of the author's candour, and not of his inattention to a subject far from being ascertained.

The account of the volcanic substances will extend to considerable length, and some degree of prolixity may be found in the minuteness of the details, which was necessary for the sake of accuracy; especially as these substances have been objects of repeated disputes and contestations among the mineralogists and geologists.

NOME I. COMPACT LAVA.

e volcanic substances are of such various
, that their arrangement becomes more
ult. By far the most important substance
e lava, which must be considered chiefly as
compact or porous, the former requiring
ticular attention. In Karsten's catalogue
e are only two bits of lava; and as Buffon
prejudices against certain rocks which con-
cted his system, so Werner seems absolutely
ut his eyes upon the grandeur and import-
of volcanic productions. Hence they are
ed with great neglect, and may be said to
xcluded from German cabinets; while, to
npartial observer, they convey sublime ideas
e wonderful power of nature.

Basaltin.

the opinion that basaltin is at least some-
volcanic, appears to gain ground, it must,
identified by its geognosy, be admitted as
nost compact of all lavas. Like porous
it very often contains grains, or even no-
of olivine, or what has been called chry-
; and zeolite forms likewise a common
itic substance. Neither of these, it would
r, is found in siderite, or in the basalt of the

ancients; whose most common admixtures
quartz and felspar, and in some porphyr
chalcedony. This observation, if exact, wo
seem of itself to indicate a different origin;
if basaltin were merely the more earthy a
compact appearance of the siderous substanc
hornblende, and grunstein, as asserted by t
Wernerians, it seems difficult to imagine why
parasites should thus totally differ. Chrysol
or olivine also occurs in the masses of nat
iron, and other stones said to have fallen fr
the atmosphere; and which are well known
appear in the form of fiery meteors, and to b
other palpable marks of fusion by heat*.

Arrangement. In this division, the terms HYPONOME
MICRONOME, implying greater and smaller s
divisions of the Nome, will become still m
necessary, and more strictly applicable,
though the subjects resemble each other, th
are widely different in a geological point
view. The want of such denominations
obliged the writers on volcanic products to
vide them into new and unusual classes, gen
and species; in violation of the other provin
of mineralogy, where these terms bear qui

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* Perhaps in a heated state the magnesia may combine wit
silex, and the potash evaporate; so that felspar and magnesia
become olivine.

different interpretation. Hence the genera of Dolomieu are, 1. Compact lava. 2. Porous lava. 3. Scoriæ, &c. &c.; while the genera of Werner are Flint, Clay, Lime, &c. Here, on the contrary, basaltin remains a mode among the siderous substances, being only a different combination; while among the volcanic it becomes a hyponome, being amidst the accidential, not the elemental, rocks; not in a series of similar combinations, but in a mere assemblage of substances of quite distinct natures, but all altered by fire.

HYPONOME I. VOLCANIC BASALTIN.

Volcanic basaltin from Etna, Vesuvius, the isle of Bourbon, &c.

The same, with olivine, from the isle of Bourbon.

The same, with zeolite, from Etna.

Micronome 1. The same, with various substances involved in the volcanic torrent.

Micronome 2. The same, with fragments of ejected rock.

Micronome 3. Compact lava, with melted garnets, from Vesuvius. The appearance is rather vitreous.

HYPONOME II. POROUS BASALTIN.

The three very compact homogenous lavas of Dolomieu are probably original rocks; for he speaks of their occurrence in blocks*; and the grand error of his volcanic treatises is, that he confounds antecedent rocks and ejections with lavas.

The siderous compact lavas are thus described by Brochant; who has, however, in this part of his valuable work, followed the arrangement and ideas of Dolomieu.

Brochant's account.

"These lavas are commonly of a black colour, more or less deep, seldom grey or brown: their fracture is imperfectly conchoidal, their contexture very compact; they are harder, but more brittle than trap, rather sonorous, very heavy; they melt, under the blow-pipe, into black scoriæ; they attract the magnet; they give, by breathing on them, an earthy smell: this lava is one of the most common in volcanic regions, above all in the currents which have issued from Etna, and which are almost entirely composed of it.

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* Etna, 185.

"It is seldom that they are homogenous; they are, on the contrary, almost always interspersed with different minerals; those which have been most remarked are felspar, augite, hornblende, garnet, leucite, olivine, and mica."[*]

Recently Breislak, certainly an intelligent writer, mentions many kinds of compact lava, without any notice concerning their rarity or singularity[†]. Ferber, an unprejudiced judge, likewise gives a catalogue of compact lavas, amounting to fifteen kinds. He especially says that the common black lava, which covers Vesuvius on every side, is porous on the surface, spongy, and light, and therefore employed in vaulted roofs; but at a greater depth it is extremely compact, and then used in foundations, and in paving the streets[‡]. Yet he compares it with slags; and speaks of its being mixed with a reddish iron ochre, like the rocks under the basaltin in the north of Ireland, and in the Faroe isles. But Ferber possibly means only porous lava, which he styles compact, in comparison with the common vesicular lava: and it is possible that the latter may abound in cabinets, because it is easily detached from the

Ferber's ideas.

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[*] Brochant, ii. 626.

[†] Voyage dans la Campanie, Paris, 1801, 8vo.

[‡] Letters on Italy, p. 154.

surface; while considerable labour and must be employed to arrive at the true com lava*.

It must also be remembered that Ferber reg basaltin as a volcanic production, in which h followed by almost every writer, German French, who has visited volcanic countries. it is Werner's plan never to decide on substa or regions, which he has not seen with his eyes, it is much to be regretted that he did visit Vesuvius, if he could not attain the maje scenes of Etna.

While the French writers are often so pr diced in favour of volcanoes, that with them ev black or vesicular stone is a lava; and the G mans, on the other hand, deny even obsidian pumice to be volcanic; both sides injuring th own cause by pushing it to an absurd excess; may be satisfactory to know the ideas of Ferb who is at least regarded as an unprejudiced wri Besides the black homogenous lava, above m tioned, his other compact sorts are black leucites, with felspar, with siderite, with chr lite, with vesuvian, with obsidian. He adds f grey compact lava, with siderite, augite, ; and red compact lava with leucite and . But by his immediate transition to the the sand, and the powders, he would rather y the term *compact*, to imply a vague dis- from the *loose* substances, than a strict ation of the word: and this, among a thou- nstances, may show the necessity of austere ge, and the most precise definitions in mi- gy.

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* Saussure, i. 128, 4to. has observed, that compact lava is are, and found only in the interior of the current. So also Fe p. 202. "la parte bassa dei torrenti è formata di lava piu o compatta."

Opinion of Faujas.

jas used to indicate five differences between nd compact lava. 1. Trap is soft, and may atched by a knife, which on lava loses edge. p attracts iron, but lava is a magnet. 3. ctricity, lava acts like glass. 4. There is no e in trap, but it is common in lava. 5. Trap rnace becomes a transparent glass, but lava ns opake. These distinctions will not, how- be admitted by the Neptunists. In Bron- t's opinion, compact lava always presents a somewhat crystallised, in which it differs trap[*]. If basaltic columns be found on their origin may still remain dubious; for, ding to Gioeni, the radical parts of that tain are basalt, which is only concealed by the lavas[*]. But Ferrara seems to have de this inquiry.

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[*] i. 551.

Porous basaltin, with olivine, from Etna.

The same, with leucite, from Vesuvius.

The same, with augite, the pyroxene of H which contains about 15 of iron, and seem mere modification of siderite.

Micronome 1. Grey compact lava.

All lavas, as already mentioned, with a few fling exceptions of mere curiosity, may be clas in two divisions: those with a base of side and those with a base of felsite. The grey l often belong to the latter division; but are sometimes so intermingled with siderite, that they appear delicately dotted or punctuated. Vesuvius presents lava of this kind, which, in spite of the interspersion of mica, receives an admirable polish.

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[*] P. 52. Chrysolite, or olivine, is common in native iron, in lava, ib. 217. Gallitzin (Rec. des Noms, Brunsw. 1801, mentions an iron ore articulated like basalt, *mine de fer en pri articulés, comme le basalte*. Brochant has a red hematite of iro prisms, from the Fichtelberg near Bareuth.

The pretended basaltin of Wales, observed by Strange and ot at Cader Idris, is, according to recent and more accurate obser a coarse grunstein or basalton, in rude oblong fragments occasi by fissures. Appearances more volcanic may be traced in the of Ireland; where the red earth resembles puzzolana; the *k* Kirwan, found near Belfast, is very *porous*; and the *mullen* see some an ash-grey lava with hornblende. Deluc, Geol. 273 presses his belief in the extinct volcanoes of Gèrmany, and say sections of lava may be observed turned to a central point, forming circles of hills around an empty space, the focus h sunk and disappeared. He calls these volcanic crowns; an centre is often a lake.

Faujas, in his general classification of volcanic products, has denominated this kind *Laves feldspathiques*; and mentions one which is black, yet melts under the blow-pipe into a white amel. Some, on the contrary, belong to the white compact lavas, about to be described*.

Grey lavas of Faujas.

The grey sorts are, "Felsite lava, of a clear grey, sometimes bluish, sometimes rather greenish, or white a little inclined to red, of a fine paste, rather disposed in little plates than in grains, with mica more or less black, and a multitude of irregular grains of a felspar, whiter or a little yellowish, which infringes on the base, and whose parts have a contexture and a direction different from that of the base of the lava,

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* In his ideas, trap resembles felsite; but he forgets that iron, always a most predominant and characteristic substance, is wanting in felsite.

His classification of volcanic substances was first published in the *Annales du Museum*; and latterly, with great variations, in his *Geologie*, tome ii. The extracts here given are generally from the former, which is more ample and instructive, on some topics, than his last revision.

" Felsite lava of a grey white, fine paste, and of a shining reflection, and satiny, of ar logous nature to the preceding in respect composition; but differs in as much as the of volcanic fire has impressed on the paste a racter of fusion similar to that of pumice, the granular fragments of felspar, whiter and more diaphanous nature, which are immen the massive felspar, have more resisted the of fire, and remain nearly untouched.

" Felsite lava of a deep Isabella colour, grains of white diaphanous felspar, and a nu of small specks of black mica, which hav mained untouched in the midst of the st base, rather porous, and passed into the st pumice. This felsite lava has relations wit preceding; but its contexture is more rough, its pores closer; its aspect has an appearan pitchstone; which obtained it, from Dolo the name of *resiniform lava*.

" Grey felsite lava, with a multitude of globules more or less round, and inherent i base, of a substance analogous to that of fe of a deeper colour than the paste which co them, and in which they have been primi formed: their contexture is closer and vitreous. This lava, which is hard, and su tible of being polished, appears spotted, an

ry small lineaments of black mica;
glass, and melts under the blow-pipe
yish white amel.

ite lava, grey, and sometimes of a whitish
alogous to the foregoing, with the differ-
t, in this, the paste, which also encloses
aments of black mica, is looser and less
; and that the spherical globules are much
d of a felspar a little vitreous, but very
They cannot be better compared than
peas. Some specimens are found, where
which contains them being in part de-
the globules have resisted, and offer saliant
nces which have a false appearance of
crystals. These contain in their interior,
on their surface, linear portions of fel-
ter than the globular paste which contains
ere are also some specks of black mica.
able that these globules may pass into a
bsidian called *luchs saphir*, when a violent
duces vitrification."

base of this lava consists of felspar or
t is often very compact. In describing
nse current, which descends from the an-
ter of Etna towards Mascali, Dolomieu
t it lies under vesicular lava, and is of a
grain, and conchoidal fracture, like petro-

silex, that is felsite*. There are some white spo of undissolved felspar, and some specks of siderit which occasionally appear rusty and earthy fro the oxygenation of the iron. He also describes a grey homogenous lava, of a very fine grain, with very small dots of a clearer colour, which, examined with a lens, present a looser texture than the other parts, and have often pores in their centre His *laves silicées* also belong to this kind, being a compact as porcelain, with spangles of black mica while sometimes there are long fibres, as in melte glass†.

Breislak says that the grey lava, which issue from Vesuvius in the noted eruption of 1794, is i some parts so compact that the grain resemble flint. It has a faint interspersion of mica‡.

Grey compact lava, with very small pore abounds at Volvic in Auvergne, where it is used i building: it chiefly reposes on a fine grained gr granite.

Micronome 2. White compact lava.

This kind is uncommon, and must arise

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[*] Dolomieu Etna, 240. See afterwards Breislak's accoun eruption of Vesuvius, 1794.

[†] Ponces, 104.

[‡] i. 222.

melted felsite. Dolomieu specially observes
the tint is original, and not derived from sul-
ous vapours*. Even earthy lavas and basalt
be found of a white colour; but this always
s from the action of vapours. White lava is
l in the little isle of Ischia†.

nome 3. Brown compact lava.

is colour may arise from the iron mingled in
elsite.

HYPONOME III. PORPHYRITIC LAVA.

s both the substances most general in lavas,
ly, siderite and felspar, also constitute ge-
s porphyry, it is naturally to be expected
lava should sometimes assume this structure.
ingenious observer of Etna gives the follow-
ccount‡.

Dolomieu's account.

I denominate all those lavas porphyritic,
h present crystals of felspar, when those
als are of a different colour from the base
n contains them, and from spots in it.

This species is most common: it in itself con-
s more than half of the compact lavas of

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[*] Etna, 161.

[†] Ponces, p. 71, and 109.

[‡] Dolomieu, 212.

Etna; it may even be said that porphyry is essential base of almost all the lavas of that cano; that it chiefly characterises the product of Etna, and distinguishes it from other volca where in general porphyries are more rare.

"The size, number, and form of the cr of felspar, and the colour of their base, wi tinguish the varieties of this species; but not consider as varieties, the accidents fractures, which, according to their direc fer inequalities in the form and size of the especially when the crystals are very m tened, and resemble a piece of money.

"Felspar is not always solitary in th it is often accompanied with black s sometimes chrysolites; both these sub equally found in some antique porphy

"The base, or ground of all these lavas resembles those simple lavas the first species: some, however, a ject to be inflated, and have a more vi besides the felspar is never altered i organisation, only sometimes it is a It is generally observed that the have undergone a violent action of the felspar has become; an effec produced by exposing green porp or antique serpentine, in which t lack, while the felspar whitens; it then acquires ie property of strongly acting on the magnet.

"Most porphyritic lavas are susceptible of a ne polish, which always increases the strength of eir colour; they then acquire as much bright- ess and beauty as natural porphyries, and may e substituted for them; only porphyries of a pur- le, and green bases, are not found among them, ecause those two colours become black in a less degree of heat than that of volcanoes."

The most common porphyritic lava of Etna is of a greyish black with white spots, the base resembling basalt. But the work of Dolomieu having been published before mineralogy had acquired great precision, it is to be feared that he has often confounded the lavas with the original rocks.

In one of his porphyritic lavas he observed crystals of specular iron; and as he also observed this metal in the same state in the dross of Monte Rosso, he concludes that it is formed by sublimation*.

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* Etna, 379.

NOME II. VESICULAR LAVA.

This is the most general and undoubted product of volcanic fires. The vesicles are sometimes of an oblong form, but often spherical, especially in those with a base of siderite, which, even in vitrification, does not assume the fibrous form common to other substances.

Analysis.

From the lava which contains leucite, Vauquelin derived silex 53, argil 18, lime 2, oxyd of iron 6, potash about 17. The leucite itself contained very little iron, but presented the same ingredients as the lava, with 20 of potash.

Vesicular lava is the most common and characteristic production of volcanoes, among which Etna has been chiefly celebrated for more than two thousand years. The torrents of liquid fire, vaguely mentioned through a long series of learned and illiterate ages, consisted of inflamed vesicular lava. Many were the attempts to explore the source of this phenomenon, the summit of a mountain so interesting to curiosity and even to science. But the best account is that of Spallanzani, at once a natural philosopher and a mineralogist, and who has sprinkled his description with some learned anecdotes of the his-

Summit of Etna.

of this celebrated mountain. Its length
minuteness will only render it the more ac-
ible to the intelligent reader, especially as
may serve to diversify the dry brevity of
parts of this domain. It may also be con-
ed as a counterpart to the description of
ummit of Mont Blanc, by Saussure, which
ren in a former division of this work.

Three hours before day I, with my compa-
s, left the *Grotta delle Capre*, which had
ded us a welcome asylum; though our bed
not of the softest, as it consisted only of a
ak leaves scattered over the floor of lava.
tinued my journey towards the summit of
; and the clearness of the sky induced me
pe that it would continue the same during
approaching day, that I might enjoy the
sive and sublime prospect from the top of
lofty mountain, which is usually involved in
ds. I soon left the middle region and en-
d the upper one, which is entirely destitute
egetation, except a few bushes very thinly
ered. The light of several torches, which
carried before us, enabled me to observe
ature of the ground over which we passed,
to ascertain, from such experiments as I
ble to make, that our road lay over lavas
r perfectly the same with, or analogous to,

those in which the *Grotta delle Capre* is h lowed.

"We had arrived at within about four mil of the borders of the great crater, when th dawn of day began to disperse the darkness night. Faint gleams of a whitish light wer succeeded by the ruddy hues of Aurora; an soon after the sun rose above the horizon, turbi at first and dimmed by mists, but his rays inse sibly became more clear and resplendent. The gradations of the rising day are no where to l viewed with such precision and delight as fro the lofty height we had reached, which was n far from the most elevated point of Etna. He likewise I began to perceive the effects of t eruption of Etna, which took place in July 17 and which has been so accurately described the Chevalier Gioeni[*]. These were visible in coating of black scoriæ, at first thin, but whi became gradually thicker as I approached t summit of the mountain, till it composed a st tum of several palms in thickness. Over th scoriæ I was obliged to proceed, not witho considerable difficulty and fatigue, as my leg

Drosses.

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[*] "His account of this eruption was printed at Catania, in 1 There is likewise a French translation at the end of the *Catal Raisonné* of M. Dolomieu." An English translation of this si lar account is afterwards here given.

every step sank deep into it. The figure of these scoriæ, the smallest of which are about a line, or somewhat less, in diameter, is very irregular. Externally they have the appearance of scoriæ of iron; and when broken, are found full of small cavities, which are almost all spherical, or nearly of that figure. They are therefore light and friable, two qualities which are almost always inseparable from scoriæ. This great number of cavities is an evident proof of the quantity and vigorous action of the elastic fluids, which in this eruption, imprisoned in the liquid matter within the crater, dilated it on every side, seeking to extricate themselves; and forced it, in scoriaceous particles, to various heights and distances, according to the respective weights of those particles. The most attentive eye cannot discover in them the smallest shorl; either because these stones have been perfectly fused, and with the lava passed into homogenous consistence, or because they never existed in it. Some linear felspars are however found, which by their splendour, semitransparency, and solidity, show that they have suffered no injury from the fire. When these scoriæ are pulverized, they become extremely black; but retain the dryness and scabrous contexture which they had when entire. They abound in iron, and in consequence the dust produced by pulverising them copiously adheres to the point of the magnetise knife; and a small piece of these scoriæ wil put the magnetic needle in motion at the distance of two lines.

Balls of lava. "In the midst of this immense quantity o scoriæ, I in several places met with some substances of a spherical figure, which, like th lava, were at first small, but increased in size a I approached the summit of the mountain These were originally particles of lava ejecte from the crater in the eruption before mentioned, which assumed a spherical figure when the were congealed by the coldness of the air. O examining them, I found them in their qualitie perfectly to resemble the scoriæ, and to posses the same magnetism.

Smoke. "Only two miles and a half remained of ou journey, when the great laboratory of nature enclosed within the abysses of Etna, began it astonishing operations. Two white columns o smoke arose from its summit: one, which wa the smallest, towards the north-east side of the mountain; and the other towards the north-west A light wind blowing from the east, they both made a curve towards the west, gradually dilating, until they disappeared in the wide expanse of air. Several streams of smoke, whic arose lower down towards the west, followed the wo columns. These appearances could not but end to inspire me with new ardour to prosecute my journey, that I might discover and admire he secrets of this stupendous volcano. The sun kewise shining in all his splendour, seemed to romise that this day should crown my wishes. But experience taught me that the two miles and a half I had yet to go, presented many more obstacles than I could have imagined; and that nothing but the resolution I had formed to complete my design at every hazard, could have enabled me to surmount them.

Lava of 1787.

"Having proceeded about a hundred paces further, I met with a torrent of lava, which I was obliged to cross to arrive at the smoking summit. My guides informed me that this lava had issued from the mountain in October 1787; and as the account of the Chevalier Gioeni, which I have cited, only mentions the eruption of the month of July of the same year, I shall here give a brief description of it, as it does not seem hitherto to have been described.

"This very recent lava extends three miles in length; its breadth is various, in some places being about a quarter of a mile, in others one-third, and in others still more. Its height, or ather depth, is different in different parts; the

Eruptions from the crater.

greatest being, as far as I was able to observe, about eighteen feet, and the least six. Its course is down the west side of the mountain; and, like the other lava which flowed in July 1787, it issued immediately from the great crater of Etna. The whole number of the eruptions of this mountain of which we have any record, before and after the Christian æra, is thirty-one; and ten only, as we are informed by Gioeni, including that of which he has given an account, have issued immediately from the highest crater. That which I observed may be the eleventh; unless it should rather be considered as the same with that described by the Sicilian naturalist, since the interval between August and October is a very short intermission of rest for a volcano. The cause of the rarity of the eruptions which issue immediately from the crater, compared with those which disgorge from the sides, seems easily to be assigned. The centre of this volcano is probably at a great depth, and perhaps on a level with the sea. It is therefore much more easy for the matter liquified by the fire, put in effervescence by the elastic fluids, and impelled on every side from the centre to the circumference, to force its way through one of the sides of the mountain where it finds least resistance, and there form a current; than to be hrown up, notwithstanding the resistance of ravity, from the bottom to so great a height as he highest crater of Etna. It is evident, therefore, that the effervescence in the eruptions of the months of July and October 1787, was extremely violent. The torrent of the month of October is every where covered with scoriæ, which resemble those ejected in the month of July in their black colour, but differ from them in the great adhesion they have to the lava, in their exterior vitreous appearance, their greater weight, and their hardness, which is so great that they give sparks with steel almost as plentifully as flints. These differences, however, are to be attributed only to accidental combinations of the same substance; the constituent principles of the scoriæ of this lava not being different from those of the detached scoriæ mentioned above. Both likewise contain the same felspar lamellæ.

Difficulties of ascent.

"This new current was however very difficult, and even dangerous, in the passage. In some places the scoriæ projected in prominent angles and points, and in others sunk in hollows, or steep declivities; in some, from their fragility and smoothness, they resembled thin plates of ice, and in others they presented vertical and harp projections. In addition to these difficulties, my guides informed me I should have t pass three places where the lava was still re hot, though it was now eleven months since i had ceased to flow. These obstacles, however could not overcome my resolution to surmoun them, and I then experienced, as I have frequently done at other times, how much may b effected in difficulties and dangers like these, b mere physical courage, by the assistance c which we may proceed along the edge of a precipice in safety; while the adventurer who su fers himself to be surprised by a panic fear, wi be induced cowardly to desist from the ente prize he might have completed. In severa places, it is true, the scoriæ broke under m feet; and in others I slipped, and had nearl fallen into cavities from which I should hav been with difficulty extricated. One of th three places pointed out by the guides had likewise, from its extreme heat, proved highly disagreeable; yet at length I surmounted all these obstacles and reached the opposite side, not without making several cursory observations on the places whence these heats originated. Two large clefts, or apertures, in different places appeared in the lava, which there, notwithstanding the clearness of the day, had an obscure redness; and on applying the end of the staff which

I had used as a support in this difficult journey, to one of these, it presently smoked, and immediately after took fire. It was therefore indubitable that this heap of ejected lava still contained within it the active remains of fire, which were more manifest there than in other places, because those matters were there collected in greater quantities.

Cone of Etna.

"I had yet to encounter other obstacles. I had to pass that tract which may properly be called the cone of Etna, and which, in a right line, is about a mile or somewhat more in length. This was extremely steep, and not less rugged, from the accumulated scoriæ which had been heaped upon it in the last eruption, the pieces of which were neither connected together, nor attached to the ground; so that frequently when I stepped upon one of them, before I could advance my other foot, it gave way, and forcing other pieces before it down the steep declivity, carried me with it, compelling me to take many steps backwards instead of one forwards. To add to this inconvenience, the larger pieces of scoriæ above that on which I had stepped, being deprived of the support of those contiguous to them, came rolling down upon me, not without danger of violently bruising my feet, or breaking my legs. After several ineffectual attempts to proceed, I found the only method to avoid this inconvenience and continue my journey, was to step only on those large pieces of scoriæ which, on account of their weight, remained firm; but the length of the way was thus more than doubled, by the circuitous windings it was necessary to make to find such pieces of scoriæ as, from their large size, were capable of affording a stable support. I employed three hours in passing, or rather dragging myself, to the top of the mountain, partly from being unable to proceed in a right line, and partly from the steepness of the declivity, which obliged me to climb with my hands and feet, sweating and breathless, and under the necessity of stopping at intervals to rest, and recover my strength. How much did I then envy the good fortune of those who had visited Etna before the irruption of 1787, when, as my guides assured me, the journey was far less difficult and laborious!

" I was not more than a hundred and fifty paces distant from the vertex of the cone, and already beheld close to me, in all their majesty, the two columns of smoke. Anxious to reach the borders of the stupendous gulf, I summoned the little strength I had remaining to make a last effort, when an unforeseen obstacle for a moment cruelly retarded the completion of my ardent wishes. The volcanic craters, which are still burning more or less, are usually surrounded with hot sulphureous acid steams, which issue from their sides and rise in the air. From these the summit of Etna is not exempt; but the largest of them rose to the west, and I was on the south-east side. Here likewise four or five streams of smoke arose from a part somewhat lower, and through these it was necessary to pass; since on one side was a dreadful precipice, and on the other so steep a declivity, that I and my companion, from weakness and fatigue, were unable to ascend it; and it was with the utmost difficulty that our two guides made their way up it, notwithstanding they were so much accustomed to such laborious expeditions. We continued our journey, therefore, through the midst of the vapours; but, though we ran as fast as the ground and our strength would permit, the sulphureous steams with which they were loaded were extremely offensive and prejudicial to respiration, and affected me in particular so much, that for some moments I was deprived of sense; and found, by experience, how dangerous an undertaking it is to visit volcanic regions infested by such vapours.

Crater.

"Having passed this place, and recovered by degrees my former presence of mind, in less than an hour I arrived at the utmost summit of Etna, and began to discover the edges of the crater; when our guides, who had preceded me at some distance, turned back, and hastening towards me, exclaimed, in a kind of transport, that I never could have arrived at a more proper time to discover and observe the internal part of this stupendous volcano. The reader will easily conceive, without my attempting to describe it, how great a pleasure I felt at finding my labours and fatigue at length crowned with such complete success. This pleasure was exalted to a kind of rapture when I had completely reached the spot, and perceived that I might without danger contemplate this amazing spectacle. I sat down near the edge of the crater, and remained there two hours, to recover my strength after the fatigues I had undergone in my journey. I viewed with astonishment the configuration of the borders, the internal sides, the form of its immense cavern, its bottom, an aperture which appeared in it, the melted matter which boiled within, and the smoke which ascended from it. The whole of this stupendous scene was distinctly displayed before me; and I shall now proceed to give some description of it, though it will only be possible to present the reader with a very feeble image, as the sight alone can enable him to form ideas at all adequate to objects so grand and astonishing.

"The upper edges of the crater, to judge by the eye, are about a mile and a half in circuit, and form an oval, the longest diameter of which extends from east to west. As they are in several places broken, and crumbled away in large fragments, they appear as it were indented, and these indentations are a kind of enormous steps, formed of projecting lavas and scoriæ. The internal sides of the cavern, or crater, are inclined in different angles in different places. To the west their declivity is slight; they are more steep to the north; still more so to the east; and to the south-east, on which side I was, they are almost perpendicular. Notwithstanding this irregularity, however, they form a kind of funnel, large at the top and narrow at the bottom, as we usually observe in other craters. The sides appear irregularly rugged, and abound with concretions of an orange colour, which at first I took for sulphur, but afterwards found to be the muriate of ammoniac, having been able to gather some pieces of it from the edges of the gulf. The bottom is nearly a horizontal plane, about two-thirds of a mile in circumference. It appears striped with yellow, probably from the above mentioned salt. In this plane, from the place where I stood, a circular aperture was visible, apparently about five poles in diameter, from which issued the larger column of smoke, which I had seen before I arrived at the summit of Etna. I shall not mention several streams of smoke, which arose like thin clouds from the same bottom, and different places in the sides. The principal column, which at its origin might be about twenty feet in diameter, ascended rapidly in a perpendicular direction while it was within the crater; but when it had risen above the edges, inclined towards the west, from the action of a light wind, and, when it had risen higher, dilated into an extended but thin volume. This smoke was white, and being impelled to the side opposite to that in which I was, did not prevent my seeing within the aperture; in which I can affirm I very distinctly perceived a liquid ignited matter, which continually undulated, boiled, and rose and fell, without spreading over the bottom. This certainly was the melted lava, which had arisen to that aperture from the bottom of the Etnean gulf.

" The favourable circumstance of having this aperture immediately under my view, induced me to throw into it some large stones, by rolling them down the steep declivity below me. These stones, which were only large pieces of lava that

I had detached from the edges of the crater, bounding down the side, in a few moments fell on the bottom, and those which entered into the aperture, and struck the liquid lava, produced a sound similar to that they would have occasioned had they fallen into a thick tenacious paste. Every stone I thus threw, struck against and loosened others in its passage, which fell with it, and in like manner struck and detached others in their way, whence the sounds produced were considerably multiplied. The stones which fell on the bottom rebounded, even when they were very large, and returned a sound different from that I have before described. The bottom cannot therefore be considered only a thin crust; since, were it not thick and solid, it must have been broken by stones so heavy falling from so great a height.

"To satisfy one emotion of curiosity, is frequently to excite another. I had at first approached this volcano with a kind of superstitious awe. The histories of every age, the relations of travellers, the universal voice of Europe, had all contributed to inspire those who should adventure to visit it with dread: but as at this time it seemed to have laid aside its terrors, and was in a state of perfect calmness and tranquillity, I was encouraged to become more familiar, and to endeavour to pry into more of its secrets. I have already observed that the side of the crater to the west is of a more gentle declivity than the others; and I therefore conceived that this might serve me as a ladder to descend to the bottom, where I might have added to the observations I had already made, other new and important facts. But the persons whom I had brought with me as guides, would not consent that I should expose myself to such danger. They could not, however, prevent me from making at my ease the observations I have here published, and walking leisurely about the summit of the mountain, notwithstanding the dangerous consequences with which they threatened me: telling me that, should the wind change, the column of smoke must be turned towards us, and might deprive us of life by its pestilential fumes; that besides, we were not certain that the lava at the bottom, which now appeared so calm and still, would long remain in the same state; but that it was possible, from circumstances difficult to foresee, that it might be thrown up on a sudden, and punish our imprudent curiosity by burying us beneath the fiery ruin; in support of which suggestion they produced several instances of sudden and most unexpected eruptions.

Second crater.

" We have seen above that there were two olumns of smoke arising from Etna. It is to e remarked that, besides that point of Mount tna on which I stood, there is another to the orth, a quarter of a mile higher, and which nders the summit of Etna properly bifurcated. 'ithin the first prominence is sunk the crater I ave described; and on the side of the other is ie second, from which ascends a lesser column f smoke. The second crater is smaller by bout the one-half than that I have already deribed; and the one is separated from the other ly by a partition of scoriæ and accumulated va, which lies in the direction of from east to est. I made my observations on this second ater from a small distance; but it was impossie to advance to it, on account of the numerous d thick streams of smoke by which it was rrounded. This, however, was no great dispointment, after having seen and examined ie principal crater, which is that whence several irrents of lava had issued in 1787. I ought rtainly to consider myself as extremely fornate, in being able to gratify my curiosity with near and distinct a view of the objects I have scribed; as the guides assured me that among l the times when they had conducted strangers the summit of Etna, this was the only one in which they had a clear and undisturbed view of the internal parts of that immense gulf. After my return to Catania, the Chevalier Gioeni likewise declared to me that in his different excursions to that mountain he had never had a good fortune similar to mine; and that a month before my arrival he had made a journey to Etna with the Chevalier Dangios, furnished with the necessary instruments to ascertain accurately the height of the mountain; but when they had arrived at the foot of the cone, where they had proposed to begin their operations, they were obliged to return back, from the obstacles they met with, which, to say the truth, are commonly neither few nor small.

" Etna rises to a prodigious height above the level of the sea, and its summit is usually covered with snows and ice, and obscured with clouds, except when the latter are low, and range along the sides. The winds likewise frequently blow with such violence, that persons can scarcely keep their feet, not to mention the acute cold which benumbs the limbs. But the most formidable impediments to the progress of the adventurers who attempt this perilous journey, are the streams of sulphureous vapour which rise on the sides, and the thick clouds of sulphureous smoke which burst forth from the mouth of the volcano, even when not in a state of agitation. It seems as if nature had placed these noxious fumes as a guard to Etna, and other fiery mountains, to prevent the approach of curiosity, and secure her mysterious and wondrous labours from discovery. I should, however, justly incur the reproach of being ungrateful, were I not to acknowledge the generous partiality she appeared to manifest towards me. At the time I made my visit the sky was clear, the mountain free from snows, the temperature of the atmosphere not incommodious, the thermometer standing at seven degrees above the freezing point (48° of Fahrenheit), and the wind favouring my design, by driving the smoke of the crater from me, which otherwise would alone have been sufficient to have frustrated all my attempts. The streams of smoke I met with in my way were indeed somewhat troublesome, but they might have been much more so; though, had our guides conducted us by another road, as on my return to Catania I found they might have done, we should have escaped this inconvenience.

Other accounts.

" It here will not be improper to compare these observations on the crater of Etna with those of Baron Riedesel, Sir William Hamilton, Mr. Brydone, and Count Borch; as such a

comparison will show the great changes which have taken place in this volcano within the space of twenty years; that is, from the time
Riedesel. when it was visited by Baron Riedesel in 1767, to that of my journey in 1788. At the time when that traveller made his observations, the crater was enlarged towards the east, with an aperture which now no longer exists. He has not given the measure of its circuit, nor has he mentioned the interior aspect of the crater; probably because he had not seen it, having been, as I imagine, prevented by the quantity of smoke which he tells us continually ascended from it.

" It is worthy of notice, however, that at that time there was not at the bottom of the crater the hard flat surface I have described; since the stones thrown into it did not return the smallest sound. Within the gulf itself was heard a noise similar to that of the waves of the sea when agitated by a tempest, which noise probably proceeded from the lava within the bowels of the mountain, liquefied and in motion. We may hence conceive how easily a volcano may begin to rage on a sudden, though before apparently in a state of complete tranquillity; for if we suppose a superabundant quantity of elastic substances to have been suddenly developed in, the liquid lava of Etna, either at the time when Baron Riedesel visited the crater, or when I observed it in a state of slight commotion within the gulf, it must immediately have swelled in every part, beating violently against the sides of the caverns in which it was imprisoned, thundered among the deep cavities, and, bursting forth through the sides, have poured out a river of fire; or should its violence have been there resisted, it would have rushed up within the crater, until it overflowed its brink, and deluged the sides of the mountain with its torrents.

Hamilton.

"Sir William Hamilton, on the 26th of October, 1769, arrived at the summit of Etna with great difficulty, on account of the snows he met with in his way, the severity of the atmosphere, the sulphureous vapours, and the violence of the wind. He was unable to view distinctly the lower parts of the crater, being prevented by the great quantity of smoke which issued from it; though when this smoke was sometimes driven away by the wind, he could discover that the crater was shaped like a funnel, diminishing until it ended in a point; and that this funnel was incrusted over with salt and sulphur. The crater was two miles and a half in circumference.

"From the time therefore of the journey of Baron Riedesel to that of Sir William Hamilton, the crater must have undergone great changes in its structure; since if the stones that were thrown into it gave no indications to the ear that they struck against any solid body, it is manifest that there must then have been an abyss as well as a funnel; and as the funnel terminated in a point when it was observed by Sir William Hamilton, it is evident that the flat bottom I have described, and which was about two thirds of a mile in circuit, did not then exist.

"The internal sides of the crater, Sir William tells us, were covered with a crust of salt and sulphur; but he does not specify the nature of the former; and though the presence of the latter is not improbable, he might have been led into a mistake by the yellow colour, and have taken the muriate of ammoniac (sal ammoniac) for sulphur, as I did before I examined it. Sir William has not told us that he made any examination at all; and it is probable that he judged only from the appearance it presented to his eye.

"He observes, lastly, that the crater was two miles and a half in circumference; an estimate which may be made to agree with mine by neglecting the partition which separates the greater crater from the less, and considering them both as one. The sum of the two circumferences, according to the estimate I have given, would then greatly differ from the measure of Sir William Hamilton. Nothing likewise can be more probable, than that among the various changes that have happened to Etna, this partition, by which the great crater is divided into two parts, has been produced.

"Omitting the observations of Mr. Brydone, that "the tremendous gulf of Etna, so celebrated in all ages, has been looked upon as the terror both of this and another life; that it inspires such awe and horror, that it is not surprising that it has been considered as the place of the damned;" and other similar philosophical reflections which he has employed; and confining ourselves to what he actually saw on the 29th of May, 1770, we learn from him that "the crater was then a circle of about three miles and a half in circumference; that it went shelving down on each side, and formed a regular hollow, like a vast amphitheatre; and that a great mouth opened near the centre*.

"From the time of the journey of Sir William Hamilton therefore, to that of the visit of Brydone, that is to say, within the short space of a year, various changes had happened to this volcano, by the enlargement of its crater, and a spacious aperture formed in its bottom.

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* Brydone's Tour through Sicily and Malta, vol. i. 195, 196.

Borch. "Count Borch appears to have wished to exceed the three other travellers in brevity, relative to this subject; since he only tells us that he arrived at the mountain on the 16th of December, 1776, and that the crater of Etna is formed like a funnel. He adds, however, what is worthy of notice, that the summit of Etna is bifurcated, as I observed it to be; a circumstance not noticed by others, Sir William Hamilton even affirming that the summit of the mountain is single; whence we may conclude that one of these summits has been produced since the time of the journey of Brydone, in 1770.

"On comparing the above-cited observations, made within the space of twenty-one years, we may perceive how many changes have taken place in Etna during that interval; and as within that time the mountain has suffered only two violent convulsions, in the eruptions of 1781 and 1787, it is evident that even in the state of apparent inaction, it still internally exerts its force.

D'Orville. "To these observations it may likewise not be without utility to add those of M. D'Orville.

He ascended Etna in 1727, and remarked two craters, one larger than the other. The latter he only mentions, but the former he describes at some length. Its circumference was perhaps somewhat more than four miles. From it issued clouds of smoke and reddish flames. These, however, did not prevent his approaching to the edge of the gulf; though, to prevent the danger of falling into it, he and his companions fastened themselves to a rope held by three men. On looking into the crater, they were unable to discern the bottom, on account of the flames and smoke: they only observed that a conical hill, formed of lava, rose in the middle of the crater, the top of which they estimated to be sixty feet below them; and they were able to see perhaps about sixty lower; where, as they conjectured, the circuit of this hill might be from six hundred to eight hundred feet*.

"We have here a remarkable circumstance relative to Etna, as it appeared in the time of M. D'Orville, and not observed by any one of the four travellers above cited, I mean the conical hill within the crater. Every observation, therefore, tends to confirm the inconstancy of the internal configuration and dimensions of this

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* Jacobi Philippi D'Orville Sicula.

volcano. It is an unextinguished forge, whic
in proportion to the violence of the fire, to tl
nature of the fossil matter on which it acts, an
of the elastic fluids which urge and set it in m
tion, produces, destroys, and re-produces vario
forms. The usual and natural figure of the sum
mit of a volcanic mountain, is that of an inver
ed concave cone within, and one solid and ere
without; and such a configuration, in countri
which are no longer in a state of conflagratio
is one of the most certain indications of the e
istence of an ancient volcano. This cone, how
ever, is liable to very great changes; accordin
to the greater or less fury of the volcano, and th
quantity and quality of the matters ejected. It
internal part, from more than one cause, is ex
posed to continual violence and change. Th
prodigious cavities of the mountain make i
almost appear suspended in the air. It ma
easily therefore give way, and fall in; especiall
on the violent impulse of new matters, which en
deavour to force a passage through the uppe
part; in consequence of which the inverted co
may, according to circumstances, present th
appearance of an aperture, or whirlpool, or
gulf. Should the liquid lava pass through th
aperture, and continue there some time, it
superficies by the contact of the cold air losin

eat gradually, would congeal and form a or solid plane; and should the fluid lava ıth, afterwards act forcibly on this crust, it t burst it, or make a passage where it found resistance; in which case the melted lava l occupy that aperture. Should then the , instead of ascending in a single body, be d up in small fragments, these cooled in the ould fall down in immense quantities within rater; and, from the effect of the laws avity, must accumulate in the figure of a

These theoretical conjectures, if they do erfectly explain, may at least enable us to ive the nature of the causes, which have ıced the difference of appearance observed ferent times in the crater of Etna.

Changes.

t is much to be regretted that we have no y of Etna; which, did we possess it, must ly contribute to elucidate the theory of noes, and the causes of the various changes h have taken place at different times, in the ıit of this mountain. That such changes happened, is evident from the few but va- e notices concerning Etna, which we find cient authors. Of these I shall briefly state r three, which appear to be of most im- nce.

Strabo, &c.

shall first produce the authority of Strabo, though he was not himself an ocular witness, but relied on the information of others, who had visited Etna, and from whom he received the account, 'That the summit was a level plain of about twenty stadia in circumference, surrounded by a brow or ridge, of the height of a wall; and that in the middle of the plain arose a smoky hill, the smoke of which ascended in a direct line, to the height of two hundred feet.' If we consider this description as accurate, the crater of Etna was at that time surrounded by a brow or ridge, which I should explain as the sides or edges; and in the lower part, was separated by a mount rising in the middle*. The same geographer relates, that two men having ventured to descend upon the plain, were obliged immediately to return, from the violence of the heat.

"Solinus tells us that there were two craters from which the vapours issued†.

Bembo.

"Cardinal Bembo likewise found two craters on the summit, the one higher than the other, and about as far distant as a stone might be

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[*] "This observation agrees with that of D'Orville, mentioned above. I find likewise that similar mounts have sometimes been thrown up within the crater of Vesuvius. See *De Bottis Istoria di varii incendii del Vesuvio.*"

[†] "In Etnæ vertice hiatus duo sunt, crateres nominati, per quos eructatus erumpit vapor. Cap. xi.

thrown from a sling. The extreme violence of the wind, and the exhaling fumes, prevented him from approaching the upper crater. The lower he found to be formed like an immense pit, and surrounded with a plain of no great extent, which was so hot that he could not bear his hand on it. From its mouth, as from a chimney, continually issued a column of smoke.

"Of the other crater, which he could not observe himself, he received a description, at Catania, from a monk, who, he assures us, was a man deserving credit, and well acquainted with such subjects. He informed him that this crater was situated on the highest part of the summit of Etna; that it was about three miles in circumference; formed like a funnel; and that it had in the middle a spacious cavity. He asserted that he had made the circuit of it, along a kind of narrow ridge; that from time to time, it threw out stones and burning matters to a considerable height, roaring, and shaking the ground; but that in the intervals, when it was undisturbed, he had observed it without danger or difficulty.

Fazello.

"In the time of Fazello, however, who visited Etna after Cardinal Bembo, there were no longer two craters, but only one; the circumference of which, as he informs us, was four miles. It had the usual form of the funnel, emitted fire and thick smoke; but at intervals was calm, and might be approached; at which times a subterraneous noise was heard, and a sound like that of the boiling of an immense caldron on a vast fire. These observations were made by him in 1541, and 1544; in both which years the crater appears to have been single*.

"These few citations appear to me sufficient to show what changes have taken place in the summit of Etna, relative to the number, the form, and the size of its craters, according to the different effects of its conflagrations at different times. But there is likewise another alteration which should not be passed unnoticed, described by two writers who themselves observed it, Fazello and Borelli; I mean the *falling in* and absorption of the extreme summit of Etna within its crater. The former of the above mentioned authors relates that in his time there arose, in the mouth of the crater, a little hill, isolated on every side, which formed the vertex of the mountain; and which, in a terrible eruption, fell into and was buried in the gulf, thus enlarging the crater, and diminishing the height of the mountain. This hill itself had been produced by a former eruption in 1444*.

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* Fazel. Sic.

"In like manner, Borelli informs us that in the conflagration of 1669, the summit of Etna, which rose like a tower to a great height above the part which is level, was swallowed up in the deep gulf†.

"I have already said, that when I visited Etna, its summit was divided into two points, or little mountains, one of which rose a quarter of a mile above the other. I should not be surprised were I to hear that in some new and fierce eruption, the highest of these had fallen in, and the two craters became one of much larger dimensions. We know that the summit of Vesuvius has sometimes fallen down in the same manner; nor does it appear difficult to assign the cause. It seems to admit of no doubt that the highest parts of Etna, and other mountains which vomit fire from their summits, have their foundations on the sides of the crater, which extend to an immense depth. In any violent earthquake therefore, or impetuous shock of the lava endeavouring to force a passage, it may easily be imagined that those foundations must be torn up and broken away, and the summit of the volcano fall and be lost in the gulf.

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* Ubi sup. Borelli Hist. Inc. Ætnæ, 1669, 4to.

† Ubi sup.

"These dilapidations have not, however, from time immemorial, produced any sensible diminution of the height of the summit of Etna; since the losses occasioned by some eruptions are repaired by others which follow. This may be inferred from a phenomenon usually inseparable from the summit of Etna, though, by rare accident, not observable at the time of my journey; I mean the ice and snow with which it is covered. Had any considerable decrease of the height of the mountain taken place, in consequence of the summit repeatedly falling in, in

Ice and snow.

former ages, the ice and snow would not certainly, in a climate so mild, have continued to envelop the top of the mountain as they now do, even during the heats of summer. But this continual residence of the snow and ice on Etna has been celebrated by all antiquity; for near observation was not necessary to ascertain this phenomenon, since it is distinctly apparent at the distance of a hundred miles. *Adscendit ea regio* (says Fazello, speaking of the upper region of Etna) *passuum millia fere xii; quæ per hyemem tota nivibus obsita extremisque frigoribus riget: per æstatem quoque nulla sui parte nec canitie nec gelu caret: quod equidem admiratione dignum* *est; cum vertex incendia prope sempiterna jugi flammarum eructatione inter nives ipsas pariat, enutriat, ac continuet.* 'This region extends nearly twelve miles; and, even in summer, is almost perpetually covered with snow, and extremely cold; which is the more wonderful as the summit continually produces, nourishes, and pours forth flames amid the ice and snow with which it is enveloped.'

Ancient accounts.

"Solinus and Silius Italicus give the same description. The former says, *Mirum est quod in illa ferventis naturæ pervicacia mixtas ignibus (Ætna) nives profert: et licet vastis exundet incendiis, aprica canitie perpetuo brumalem detinet faciem*[*]. 'Etna, in a wonderful manner, exhibits snows mixed with fires; and retains every appearance of the severest winter amid her vast conflagrations.'

"Silius Italicus has the following lines:

'Summo cana jugo cohibet (mirabile dictu)
Vicinam flammis glaciem, æternoque rigore
Ardentes horrent scopuli; stat vertice celsi
Collis hyems, calidaque nivem tegit atra favilla[†].'

'Where burning Etna, towering, threats the skies,
'Mid flames and ice the lofty rocks arise;
The fire amid eternal winter glows,
And the warm ashes hide the hoary snows.'

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[*] Cap. xi.

[†] Lib. xiv.

tude of ordinary smoke (a certain proof t
was considerably lighter than the ambient
and, when at a certain height, became extre
rarefied and dispersed. This difference in
appearance of the smoke, as observed by
two authors before mentioned and myself,
arise not only from the gravity of the air
Etna being different at different times, but
from the diversity of the smoke, which ma
sometimes lighter and sometimes heavier
the air that surrounds it; differing in its na
according to the quality of the substances
which it is produced. Such a variation i
specific gravity, must induce us to conc
that the bodies which burn within the crate
specifically different.

Air. "The effects of the air at the summit of E
as experienced by myself and some of the
vellers I have before cited, were likewise diffe
Sir William Hamilton tells us, that the thin
of that fluid occasioned a difficulty of res
tion; and Count Borch appears to have e
rienced a still greater inconvenience of that
since he says, "The rarity of the air on
mountain is extremely sensible, and almost
ders that fluid unfit for respiration." On
contrary, Baron Riedesel felt no such effe

r at least as we can judge from his own words. 'I did not perceive, as several travellers have asserted, that the air here is so thin and rarefied as to prevent, or at least greatly incommode, respiration." Mr. Brydone has said nothing on the subject, and his silence may induce us to conclude that he experienced no difficulty.

"I, my servant, and the two guides, suffered no inconvenience from the air. The exertions we had made, indeed, in climbing up the craggy steep declivities which surround the crater, produced a shortness of breathing; but when we had reached the summit, and recovered from our weariness by rest, we felt no kind of inconvenience, either while sitting, or when, incited by curiosity, we went round and examined different parts of the edges of the crater. The same is affirmed by Borelli: *Æque bene respiratio in cacumine Ætnæ absolvitur, ac in locis subjectis campestribus.*—' Respiration is performed with the same ease on the top of Etna, as in the country below.'

" Several writers have treated of the difficulty of respiration experienced by those who travel over high mountains, and other inconveniences o which they are exposed; but none, in my pinion, more judiciously than M. Saussure, in

his travels among the Alps. The observ
has made, appear to me to explain th
these different accounts, relative to the
the air on the top of Etna. When th
above the level of the sea was two t
four hundred and fifty poles, or nea
which he found to be that of Mont Bl
individual felt more or less inconveni
the rarefaction of the air, as happen
self and nineteen persons who accom
when in August 1787 he ascended
tain. But when the elevation was
for example, nineteen hundred p
these persons felt no difficulty,
was this naturalist; though he c
began to experience inconvenie
ed higher. We have not in
observations relative to the exa
as is suffici tly proved by
mates gi y different n
Dangios ver, astronom
year 17 asured the he
tain by metrical meth
anxio ects the result
facto this importa
mea

orned with elegant
t hills, and flowery
the extensive coast;
ds the beautiful city of
aves of the neighbouring

we discover, from this
he entire massy body of
whole of the island of
cities, lofty hills, exten-
dering rivers. In the in-
rceive Malta; but have a
irons of Messina, and the
abria; while Lipari, the
blazing Stromboli, and the
pear immediately under our
n stooping down, we might
finger.

no less superb and majestic,
ng surface of the subjacent
d me, and led my eye to an
till it seemed gradually to
avens.

midst of this theatre of the
, I felt an indescribable plea-
ltiplicity and beauty of the ob-
; and a kind of internal satis-
ltation of heart. The sun was

but we only see it in profile. Very different is the appearance it presents, viewed from its towering top, when the whole of its enormous bulk is subjected to the eye. The first part, and the nearest the observer, is the upper region, which, from the quantity of snows and ice beneath which it is buried during the greater part of the year, may be called the frigid zone, but which at that time was divested of this covering, and only exhibited rough and craggy cliffs, here piled on each other, and there separate, and rising perpendicularly; fearful to view, and impossible to ascend. Towards the middle of this zone, an assemblage of fugitive clouds, irradiated by the sun, and all in motion, increased the wild variety of the scene. Lower down, appeared the middle region, which, from the mildness of its climate, may merit the name of the *temperate* zone. Its numerous woods, interrupted in various places, seem, like a torn garment, to discover the nudity of the mountain. Here arise multitude of other mountains, which in any other situation would appear of a gigantic size, but are but pigmies compared to Etna. These have all originated from fiery eruptions. Lastly, the eye contemplates with admiration the lower region, which, from its violent heat, may claim the appellation of the torrid zone; the most extensive of the three, adorned with elegant villas and castles, verdant hills, and flowery fields, and terminated by the extensive coast; where, to the south, stands the beautiful city of Catania, to which the waves of the neighbouring sea serve as a mirror.

" But not only do we discover, from this astonishing elevation, the entire massy body of Mount Etna; but the whole of the island of Sicily, with all its noble cities, lofty hills, extensive plains, and meandering rivers. In the indistinct distance we perceive Malta; but have a clear view of the environs of Messina, and the greater part of Calabria; while Lipari, the fuming Vulcano, the blazing Stromboli, and the other Eolian isles, appear immediately under our feet, and seem as if, on stooping down, we might touch them with the finger.

" Another object, no less superb and majestic, was the far-stretching surface of the subjacent sea which surrounded me, and led my eye to an immense distance, till it seemed gradually to mingle with the heavens.

" Seated in the midst of this theatre of the wonders of nature, I felt an indescribable pleasure from the multiplicity and beauty of the objects I surveyed; and a kind of internal satisfaction and exultation of heart. The sun was advancing to the meridian, unobscured by the smallest cloud, and Réaumur's thermometer stood in the tenth degree above the freezing point. I was therefore in that temperature which is most friendly to man; and the refined air I breathed, as if it had been entirely vital, communicated a vigour and agility to my limbs, and an activity and life to my ideas, which appeared to be of a celestial nature."

Caverns. The currents of lava sometimes contain caverns of a very considerable extent. In Iceland they afford recesses for the flocks of sheep*. Dolomieu has described a very remarkable one in an island near Sicily; and he also found some in the proximity of Etna, sometimes 30 feet in height and 20 in breadth, the walls and vault being as regular as if they were works of art†. They are numerous; and some, as he asserts, many leagues in length. His explanation is, that the surface of the lava forming a crust, is sometimes arrested by impediments, while the under current continues to flow; so that upon its complete elapse, the space remains void. Thus bridges, of some miles of breadth or length, are found on the Missouri, in North America:

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[*] Von Troil Voy. d'Islande, Paris, 1781, the best edition revised by the author.

[†] Lipari.—Etna, 291.

the floating trees being stopped by some obstacle. Similar caverns in Iceland, especially near Hecla, are described by Von Troil.

The vesicular lava, like the compact, may be divided into two principal kinds: those with a base of siderite, and those with a base of felsite.

HYPONOME I. OF SIDERITE.

This is the most common of all the lavas, and covers the sides and skirts of every volcano*. The colour is black or grey, derived from the melted siderite. The vesicles are generally round; the larger, of two or three lines in diameter, being interspersed with many smaller pores. It is often spotted with white spangles of felspar; and the vesicles sometimes contain crystals of the same substance, and sometimes of zeolite. Those of Vesuvius, once itself an extinct volcano, and of the extinct volcanoes of Italy in a more northern direction, often contain leucite, a white stone crystallised like a garnet. This last may be said to form the base of some lavas, comparatively more abundant in cabinets than in nature†.

Homogenous vesicular lava, from Etna, Vesuvius, the Isle of Bourbon, the Puy-de-Dome, &c.

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* Saussure, § 178, concludes that his *roche de corne* forms the base of all the black lavas.

† Dol. Etna, 441, says that pyrites are formed in decomposed lava, in the humid way, by the union of the iron with the sulphur.

The same, with spangles of felspar.

Vesicular lava of a violet colour, from the extinc volcanoes of Provence: see Saussure, § 1485, 1495.

The other kinds are sufficiently remarkable to form regular subdivisions.

Micronome 1. With Leucite.

Lava, with unimpaired leucite, from Vesuvius.

The same, from Albano near Rome.

The same, with decomposed leucite, from the same places*.

Micronome 2. With Zeolite.

Black vesicular lava, with fibrous zeolite.

According to Dolqmieu, this is sometimes columnar.

" A porous black lava, the pores being exactly round, and one or two lines in diameter; distant from each other more than six lines, and sometimes one or two inches; the interior of the spherical cavities being blue, while they commonly contain zeolite and calcareous spar. This lava is crystallised in prismatic columns, more or less regular, in the mountains of Trezza and of the castle of Jaci."† Is not this an original rock?

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* See Volcanic Intrites.

† Etna, 303. Jaci is the Aci of Ferrara.

Micronome 3. With Olivine, or Volcanic Chrysolite.

These lavas are remarkable, as the same substance is found in basalt, and in the native iron of Siberia and South America.

HYPONOME II. VESICULAR LAVA WITH A BASE OF FELSITE.

In this kind the vesicles are generally elongated, and it sometimes passes into a fibrous appearance, which, when predominant, is a characteristic of pumice.

Grey or white vesicular lava, from various volcanoes.

Micronome 1. Felsite lava, with crystals of siderite.

Micronome 2. The same, with mica.

NOME III. INDURATED MUD.

American volcanoes.

The American volcanoes chiefly devolve torrents of mud, which seems to be strongly impregnated with iron. Torrents of this kind have also been said to occur in the eruptions of Etna, heat which influences Sicily and the neighbouring isles*.

His account of the remarkable eruption of this muddy volcano in 1777 is subjoined, as presenting new and singular circumstances.

Eruption of Macaluba.

"Sometimes this phenomenon appears with immense force. The inhabitants of the neighbourhood still remember with terror the eruption of 1777, one of the most violent yet known. On the 29th of September were first heard dreadful bellowings all around, while the earth shook to the distance of some miles; and from the midst of the plain, in which was formed a vast gulf, arose, to the height of about one hundred feet, an immense column of mud; which, at the top, and abandoned by the impulsive force, assumed the form of a large tree. The middle was formed of stones of all kinds and sizes, which darted violently and vertically within the body of the column. This terrible explosion lasted half an hour, when it became quiet; but, after a few minutes, resumed its force, and with these intermittences continued all the day, but the smoke lasted all the night. During the time of this phenomenon, a pungent odour of sulphurated hydrogen gas was felt at a great distance, to the surprise of the inhabitants, who did not dare to approach this spot on account of the horrible noises. But many came the following day, and found that the new great orifice had ejected several streams of liquid chalk *(creta)*, which had covered with an ashy crust of many feet all the surrounding space, filling the cavities and chinks. The hard substances ejected were fragments of calcareous tufo, of crystallised gypsum, pebbles of quartz, and iron pyrites, which had lost their lustre, and were broken in pieces: all these substances form the outward circuit at this day. The unpleasant smell of sulphur still continued; and the water, which remained in the holes, continued hot for many months; while a keen smell of burning issued from the numerous orifices around the great gulf, which was now completely filled."*

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* P. 43.

In all events, as indurated mud forms, after lava and tufo, the most abundant ejection of volcanoes, it ought to occupy an important station among their products. It may be divided into two Hyponomes: 1. Entire; 2. Mingled with various substances.

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* Ferr. 45. The name Macaluba is Arabic, signifying the place of *spilling* or *overturning*. This phenomenon is mentioned by Solinus; nay Plato, in his Phœdo, mentions the torrent or spring of mud in Sicily.

NOME IV. TUFO.

Composition. This may be regarded as the fourth and last of the great volcanic ejections. It is chiefly composed of volcanic sand and powders, or what are absurdly called ashes, of pulverised lava, dross, and pumice. When it consists of ferruginous clay it is properly called *puzzolana*; when of pumice in a recent state, *rapillo* or *lapillo*. For as earths are no longer distinguished from stones, the difference of cohesion not altering the nature of the substance, so tufo* may be regarded as of various indurations. These remarks, however, naturally lead to two grand divisions; the HARD tufo, which is used as stone; and the SOFT, or incoherent tufo, which is also called puzzolana, tarras, &c.

Tufo of Iceland. Troil has observed, that the greater part of the Icelandic mountains consist of tufo; and Hecla often ejects brown and black pumice, with sand and powder, of which substances it chiefly consists, interspersed with fragments of slate, either originally red or changed by fire. Perhaps the base of the mountain may consist of slate; and the red puzzolana of the Italians may be merely that substance affected by fire.

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* Italian writers always put *tufo*. It might be a not unuseful distinction, as already stated, to confine *tufa* to the calcareous and other depositions merely aquatic.

Volcanic powders.

It is well known that, during the grand eruptions of volcanoes, the sun is often hid, for entire days, with thick columns and clouds of comminuted substances, called *ashes* by modern writers; while the ancients, with their usual discernment, used the word *powder**. On their fall, these powders become coherent and indurated, by humidity and the lapse of ages, so as often to assume the consistence of stone. These are also among the most dangerous phenomena; the city Pompeia having been overwhelmed with a hail of pumice, while Herculaneum was buried under a shower of powders; and in the theatre, constructed without a roof as usual among the ancients, a piece was found impressed with the breasts of a woman, who had perished; a circumstance which evinces the tenuity of the substance. The hills of the isle of Ponza often present a white argillaceous tufo, extremely soft, being chiefly composed of comminuted pumice†. Breislak observed in Ischia, hills of a fine white tufo, sometimes stratified;

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* *Involutus est dies pulvere, populosque subita nox terruit.* Seneca Quest. nat. l. 2. &c. &c.

† Dolomieu, Ponces, 118.

and it sometimes assumes the appearance of pisolite.

A chief part of volcanoes.

Dolomieu has asserted, that tufo forms nine-tenths of Mount Etna, and its filial hills; but Ferrara, a more competent observer, will not allow that one-half is of this substance. The recent eruptions of this grand and perpetual volcano have, however, been chiefly remarkable for those ejections of drosses, powders, and sand, which form tufo, as the reader will observe from the following accounts of Gioeni and Ferrara, yet untranslated; and who, being skilful mineralogists, deserve more confidence than common travellers and narrators. Some degree of prolixity is indispensable, as already observed, in scientific details; and in the description of such grand and wonderful phenomena, minuteness, as in historical anecdotes, increases the pleasure of the perusal.

Remarkable in late eruptions.

Gioeni's account of the eruption of Etna, in July 1787, is introduced by the following remarks of Dolomieu, and letter of the French Consul at Messina.

Dolomieu's account.

"While on the point of closing the enumeration and description of the productions of Etna, this volcano, which, during six years, had remained inactive and quiet, experienced new convulsions: they began about the 15th of June, and were the forerunners of an eruption, which manifested the greatest activity about the middle of July: the eruption was remarkable on account of the immense quantity of ashes, sand, and light pulverulent scoriæ, which issued from its crater*. They covered the mountain, were expanded over a part of Sicily, and carried even as far as Malta. The Chevalier Dangios collected, on the terraces of the observatory at that place, a pretty large quantity of black sand, in small hard grains, which were attracted by the magnet: the sand was mingled with small and somewhat transparent crystals, of irregular figure, which, seen through the microscope, appeared to be a porous vitrification; this sand was borne to Malta by a north-west wind, on the night between the 18th and 19th of July.

" Many currents of lava were emitted by this eruption, and consequently all those kinds of substances which I have attributed to this crisis. I have received different accounts of this event, which may be serviceable in developing the theory of subterranean fires, and support certain

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* "These numerous products of scorification announce very considerable effervescence, and are constantly attended with a great disengagement of elastic fluids. Hence the column of smoke and flame rose to an immense height; and the atmosphere was infected with the odour of sulphur."

observations I have given in this catalogue. I cannot therefore terminate this work more properly, in my opinion, than with an extract from a letter of M. L'Allement, French Consul at Messina, in which some curious details will be found; and a translation, by myself, of the narrative of the Chevalier Don Joseph Gioeni, published in Italian, at Catania, in September 1787.

" *Extract of the Letter of* M. L'ALLEMENT, *French Consul at Messina, addressed to the Commander Dolomieu*[*].

Letter of the consul.

" Precisely six years and two months had elapsed since the last external symptom of fermentation exhibited by Etna, when, towards the close of the month of June, the cloud of smoke with which its summit is commonly crowned, was observed to increase in size; this smoke occasionally assumed the complexion of fire.

" Early in July, an opening was remarked on the edge of the crater in the north-west, and the fire, as seen from Catania, exactly resembled the full-moon at its rising above the horizon: the lava made a slow progress for two days; it occupied a space on the slope of two miles; became, on cooling, grey and shining; and for a time all ceased.

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[*] He was a Knight-commander of the Order of Malta.

"In the night between the 9th and 10th, an aurora borealis was distinguished, which was visible for the space of half an hour, and was repeated; it was largely spread and covered the whole horizon from Monte Rosso as far as Noto: its colour was that of light, but somewhat deeper, and its direction being the same as that of the eruption which it preceded, many conceived it to be connected with it, and even foretold that it would happen.

"In effect, on the 13th, a black and thick smoke was again seen on the summit, which progressively increased, and fire was shot forth more frequently and in greater abundance; but, in the morning of the 16th, though the glare of the sun and the thickness of the smoke prevented part of the active fire, which issued from the mouth of the volcano, from being seen, the extreme heat of the atmosphere, the noise from the mountain, and the subterranean explosions which shook the whole of its base, announced the violence of the eruption being at its acme; still this was not the case until the next day, and at ten at night it presented a most terrible, but, at the same time, a most interesting spectacle: a column of fire, of astonishing volume, was seen to rise from the mouth, the height of which was estimated at about five hundred toises; at the same time a strong lateral current of lava was discovered running in a south-west direction, and which leaving the base of the column, formed a right angle with it, the lines nearly equal in length.

"The column itself presented in the colours it displayed the greatest variety: the inflamed part, abounding in a prodigious quantity of water and sand, was occasionally mingled with a chiar' oscuro, which at every instant threatened the flame with extinction, but which ultimately tended only to increase its vivacity (and on these occasions was it that the eruption was distinctly visible at Messina), and the dark and caliginous part above, throughout its *whole* extent, was illuminated by flashes of fire, electrical aigrettes, and evulsions of ignited stones; so that what with the explosions of the crater, and the incessant subterranean rumbling, a strong similitude was afforded to the ear of a distant tempest.

"This spectacle was presented during two successive days; on the 19th, all seemed appeased. It is not with Etna as with Vesuvius for no one presumes to approach this mountai when in a state of fermentation, and only after several days of tranquillity dares even the observer venture on his researches.

"All that can at present be said is, that the great current of lava which flowed from one of the sides of the crater, ran the space of four leagues, alternately threatening the towns of *Randazzo* and *Bronte*, especially the latter, which the inhabitants were on the point of abandoning, but we have not heard of its having experienced any material damage; the ignited stones wounded two peasants, who were at work at the ice-houses, at the distance of two leagues from the summit; the rain of sand, which fell in abundance on the plain of *Mascari*, and in the territory of *Jaci*, destroyed almost all the crops.

"The following are the results of the observations of those who, after the termination of the last eruption, visited Etna: 1°. The summit of Etna is inaccessible from the vast quantity of lava, and of black and friable pumice (drosses), with which it is entirely covered, and which yet retain an intolerable heat; 2°. The great crater is closed, and another has been formed of equal dimensions between that and the one on the western side, closed some years before; 3°. The matter of the eruption is of two kinds only, saline and earthy; 4°. By analysis the saline matter is found to consist of sal ammoniac, in white and yellowish crystals, and in a tolerably pure state; and many compounds of sal ammoniac, mingled with very fine volcanic sand, which has prevented this salt from assuming its natural form and colour: the earthy matter is compounded, in various proportions, of earth, clay, iron, and lime."

"*Translation, by Dolomieu, of the Narration of the Chevalier* DON JOSEPH GIOENI, *Member of various Academies, and an Inhabitant of the first Region of Etna.*

> " Interdumque atram prorumpit ad æthera nubem,
> Turbine fumantem piceo, et candente favillâ.
>
> VIRG. l. iii. ÆN.

Gioeni's account. " From the year 1781, the epoch of the last eruption of Etna, that mountain continued perfectly inactive; rarely did smoke ascend from its crater, and even during the earthquakes which destroyed Messina and part of Calabria, the vents of this volcano seemed to be closed.

First appearance. " About the middle of the last month of June 1787, I inhabited a country-house in the middle region of the mountain, and daily remarked a

e which, issuing from the crater, fell on
one, and covered the summit of the vol-
; I observed occasionally, during the night,
this smoke towards the centre was of the
r of fire; it gradually augmented to the
of June, when, by rising in a vertical co-
, it foretold a speedy eruption.

Flames were visible on the evening of the
day, and continued to be so until the night
e 27th.

Thick smoke.

On the 28th, at eight in the morning, an
nse column of smoke was seen issuing
the crater, of white, black, and red colours,
h, after attaining a considerable elevation,
nable to sustain its weight, and, as if com-
ed, assumed the form of a pine; after this,
t forth a horizontal line, forming an angle
degrees with the column in a vertical posi-
and taking a direction towards the south-

This species of thick and opake cloud,
d by the smoke, after traversing a part of
, extended forty miles out to sea; it show-
over the whole space it covered a quantity
ht scoriæ and ashes; while this was pass-
fresh volumes of thick smoke rose from the
r, took at a certain elevation the same di-
n along the horizon, and furnished the cloud

Of drosses and powders.

with the volcanic matters it incessantly showered down. This cloud continued thus supplied until the night of the 30th, when it wholly disappeared*.

"In the morning of the 30th, Catania and the neighbourhood were covered with a small layer of extremely fine powders.

"The flames and smoke continued during the night; and the smoke, extending from the summit towards the west, indicated the direction of an eruption of lava; the volcano continued in this state without any remarkable alteration, other than occasional subterranean shocks.

"On the 8th of July, at two in the afternoon, the smoke increased, rising in white and opake globular clouds, which rapidly succeeded each other; by these clouds the mountain was covered, and the atmosphere was loaded with them to an immense height; they spread towards the west, in the direction of the wind: at the same time a roaring was heard under ground, accompanied by concussions of the earth; the repeated peals of thunder were echoed through the air,

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* "On visiting the spots covered by this rain of powder, I remarked that the smoke had formed a bend towards the south, as, on leaving the crater, it passed over *Trifaglietto* and *Zafarana*, and thence, directing its course by the woods of Jaci, it reached the sea above *Santa Tecla*."

Lightnings.

while the smoke in the west and north-east was furrowed by continual flashes of lightning of various colours; this smoke so much resembled a cloud laden with hail, that every body conceived it to forebode a violent storm; the cloud remained in this state the space of four hours, when it was utterly dissipated by the violence of the wind; the flames continued three days and nights without intermission.

Aurora borealis.

"On the 12th and 13th, neither flame nor smoke were visible proceeding from the crater; and on the night of the 13th, three quarters of an hour after nine, a weak aurora borealis was distinguished, beginning towards the west, and extending eastward, passing north of Etna; this illumination ceased about eleven o'clock, but re-appeared, in the same position as before, at one in the morning: it then exhibited radii, apparently diverging from a centre behind the mountain, and at intervals shone with more splendour than at others; it continued thus visible the space of an hour.

Shocks.

"On the following days the flames increased, the subterranean roarings were loud, and the concussions so violent as to shake the houses; deeming myself therefore no longer safe so near the summit, I removed to Catania.

Clouds of sand.

"In the night of the 17th, and throughout the 18th, the subterranean noise was almost uninterrupted; at five in the evening, clouds of white smoke, streaked with black, sprang forth in rapid succession, the one cloud driving forward the other; they covered the mountain and spread over Catania, excluding the light of day during eight hours; the clouds showered down, almost perpetually, a rain of very shining black sand; the atmosphere at first was loaded with vapours of a reddish yellow colour, which were perceptible the space of an hour, and diffused on all sides a smell of sulphur, that continued for several hours.

"While these vapours infected the atmosphere the thermometer of Reaumur rose from *24¼* to *28⅔* (*71⅔* to *83⅓* of Fahrenheit); which proves that the temperature of the air was increased by the heat of the sand.

"In the course of the first three hours this rain of ashes formed a bed two-thirds of a line in thickness; in the five succeeding hours, the quantity that fell was the third of a line.

Crater.

"The crater, at sun-set, presented a wonderful spectacle, easier for the painter than the writer to describe: the flames rose to a height greater than ever was known before; they were distinctly seen divided into three large columns, which rose either at once, or at separate intervals, and shot forth an abundance of ignited stones; part of which falling back into the crater, seemed to augment the violence of the flame, while the other part rolled to a considerable distance down the flanks of the cone.

" The smoke, accumulated at a considerable height, was mingled with flames, which cast a light on objects similar to a weak moon-light; it occupied a great horizontal extent, above which rose the three columns of fire. Another column of very dense smoke was noticed, proceeding at intervals from a vent in front of the others; it concealed for some instants the centre of explosion, and, extending towards the south, united with the other smoke, which, forming an arch several miles in length, served as a conductor to the electric fires; its extremity was frequently furrowed by lightning.

Column of fire.

" The height of this column of fire, which continued from eleven o'clock till midnight, seen from Catania, was estimated at half that of the mountain.

" After the eruption had lasted five hours, the mountain was enveloped in the deepest darkness, except the crater, which still emitted flames to the same height as the day before; besides the first, three other currents of lava seemed to be ejected; one towards the east, and two towards the south, and all in divergent radii from the crater; but observing them afterwards with a good telescope, I perceived that the three supposed currents of lava were no other than masses of scoriæ heaped together during the eruption, which continued to burn on the flanks of the cone, and which became extinct at four in the morning.

" A second eruption seemed to announce itself on the following day, when, at noon, an immense number of whirling clouds of white smoke issued from the crater, spread themselves from east to west, and by three o'clock attained an immense elevation; it seemed as though they would cover the city of Catania; but they merely terminated in flashes of lightning, similar to those of the day before, rather more pale, and which issued from the more elevated globes. I afterwards understood, that in the second and third region, some aqueous clouds uniting with the smoke, a very violent rain fell mingled with volcanic matters, differing in a small degree from the first; in the space of an hour, the whole was dissipated, and the mountain was clear.

" The ordinary flames continued during the night of the 20th of July; they somewhat increased at two in the morning, and even assumed the form of a column; but the fermentation diminishing, they resumed their former appearance in about half an hour's time, and preserved the same during two or three days, subsequent to which the mountain resumed its pristine tranquillity.

" It is evidently visible that, on this eruption, the extent of the crater was diminished towards the south, and increased towards the west.

Size of drosses.

" From the testimony of individuals worthy of credit, I learn that, on the 18th of July, blocks of dross, weighing a pound and a half, ejected from the crater, fell in the valley of *Bue*, that is to say, five miles and a third part of a mile from the spot; others likewise were thrown to different distances, in all directions round about the crater, diminishing in size in proportion to the distance.

" At *La Cava Secca*, six miles from the crater, some fell the size of a pigeon's-egg; at twelve miles from it, fragments of dross blended with sand formed a bed more than three inches in thickness. During the rain of which I have spoken, the whole of the middle region of Etna was enveloped in darkness; but chiefly in the eastern part, where the greatest quantity fell.

" The inhabitants of *Zafarana* were unable to see each other at the distance of two feet; and, when the flames began to appear, they were enveloped in vapours of intolerable heat; they imagined the mountain was sinking into the abyss from which it sprung: part of the inhabitants abandoned the village, and consternation was universal; the volcanic matter retained a heat which it communicated to the atmosphere, and the air was loaded with reddish vapour; the rain that fell ruined the vineyards and trees of the middle region, the latter in many parts having nothing but the trunk left standing.

" From *Bronte* we had information that, during the night of the 18th of July, a current of lava from the crater surrounded a wood in the neighbourhood of the town; and from its having made a progress of several miles in very little time, it caused there the greatest alarm.

" Feeling a desire of examining on the spot the effects of this eruption, the more extraordinary from its having proceeded from the summit, and not occasioned any opening in the flanks of the mountain, I repaired in the beginning of August to Bronte: this town, situated north-west of the crater, stands at the distance of six miles from it, in a direct line; within the interval are several volcanic mountains, and currents of lava which have traversed and laid waste a thick wood of fir, whose deep roots were fixed

Bronte.

in ancient lava, decomposed and converted into earth*. After passing those arid spots, I ascended a hill, from which I clearly distinguished two new currents of lava: the first had flowed W. N. W. of the crater over the flanks of the cone, between the two territories of Bronte and Aderno; I was assured that the breadth of this stream was a mile, and its length three miles; it was formed on the 16th and 17th of July, and on the 18th the rate of its progress had so much diminished that it ceased to advance more than a few fathoms. I was unable to approach it, on account of the steepness of the rocks by which it was surrounded. The second stream, which took the direction N. W. by N., was, at its issuing from the crater, half a mile in breadth; it spread afterwards so as to become a mile broad, and descending rather in an oblique line down the rapid slope of this part of the cone, divided into different currents, which left between them

Currents of lava.

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* "I was obliged to traverse the current of lava, made by the eruption of 1766, the most recent of any which took this direction; I saw several streams of lava which had crossed others, and which afforded me evident proofs of the fallacy of the conclusions of those who seek to estimate the period of the formation of the beds of lava from the change they have undergone. Some lavas, of earlier date than others, still resist the weather, and present a vitreous and unaltered surface, while the lavas of later date already begin to be covered with vegetation."

various eminences they met in their course; these streams united to form but two branches, after having flowed over a space of four miles in a very short period of time, in the night of the 18th.

"Nearly the whole surface of this lava was covered with smoke, which issued from crevices in the mass, and which increased in quantity in proportion to its proximity to the crater; much smoke likewise arose from the crater itself. At two in the morning, the thermometer of Reaumur stood at *19*$\frac{1}{4}$ (*66*$\frac{13}{20}$ of Fahrenheit*).

"On reaching the extremity of one of the branches of lava recently ejected, I found it still continued hot, and the heat was more sensible as I advanced upon it. The thickness of this stream did not exceed sixteen feet. Placing the thermometer upon the drosses on the surface, the mercury rose to *28* (*82*$\frac{2}{5}$ of Fahrenheit), and had the guide allowed us to advance farther, the heat would have been still greater†. I brought away some of the light drosses and ieavy lava, of which the whole of this current seemed to be composed.

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* "Before I reached the lava, I made an experiment with the new atmospherical electrometer of M. de Saussure; the air, notwithstanding I raised my arm with the instrument as high as possible, exhibited no indications of electricity."

† "The divergency of the balls of the electrometer, with which I here made some experiments, did not exceed the fraction of a line;

" Learning for certain that there was not on the north of Etna any new current of lava, I trod back my steps towards *Nicolosi.* I re-ascended the mountain on the 11th of August, and bent ny way directly towards the crater, to examine he changes which an explosion so violent must iecessarily have effected: smoke rose from the rater in great abundance, and to a considerable eight; but, driven by the wind towards the ast, it was no prevention to my plan.

" From the very walls of Nicolosi I noticed at the earth was covered with small fragments light dross, which became larger in proporon as I approached the summit; I found they ad covered the whole space denominated the ain *del Lago*, in such manner that the former il could no longer be distinguished; the time my departure on the excursion was half past e in the morning, and the thermometer stood (*52¼* of Fahrenheit).

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it disappeared at three feet distance from the lava. To ascertain ectly whether or not there really was any difference in the state ectricity, I several times got upon and descended from the lava, found not the slightest divergency of the balls on removing to a nce of forty paces; the slight electricity in the lava was of a posi- kind, as I convinced myself by means of a stick of Spanish wax."

"On reaching the Philosopher's Tower*, my guide measured the height of the bed of drosses, and found it three feet; but, at the foot of the cone, two miles distant from the crater in a right line, I computed the stratum of drosses to be twelve feet in thickness.

Another current.

"I found a number of insulated round blocks, which had been thrown out from the volcano towards the w. s. w., and in the same direction I saw a current of lava, still inflamed and smoking, which was descending from the crater, and at its origin was about half a mile in breadth; it afterwards swelled to a breadth of three miles, and extended two miles in length; the height of the current, at its sides, was from twelve to sixteen feet, but in the middle twice or even four times as much; the current continued to receive fresh matter from the crater, as was indicated by the slow motion of the drosses with which its surface was covered, and the flames which proceeded from the occasionally cloven surface, and which, notwithstanding the day-light, were visible; we at the same time perceived that the progress, in a forward direction of the current, was arrested.

Cone.

"The portion of the cone we had to pass, in order to reach the crater, being covered with this lava, we were consequently obliged to advance over it, following our guide, who picked his steps, choosing those drosses to tread upon which were the least friable; but our labour was vain, since, on reaching the looked-for term of our journey, so great a quantity of smoke issued as entirely to fill the mouth of the crater, and prohibit all approach.

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* Probably built when the Emperor Hadrian twice visited Etna.—P.

"The guide, who had paid a visit to the same spot some days before, informed me that he perceived a considerable increase in the fermentation of the mountain; and what he stated was confirmed by a smoke, which ascended from a number of the chasms of *Monte Rosso*, although this mountain is at a distance of three miles from the crater.

"Before I quitted the lava, I placed the thermometer on a piece of heavy dross, about the middle of the current; the mercury, in two minutes, rose to 22½ (72½ Fahrenheit*).

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* "The difficulty of the situation did not admit of my making experiments with the electrometer; but on examining this instrument, at the distance of a mile from the crater, I found the divergency of the balls extended to three lines and a fraction; this I then perceived to be owing to a cloud, which was passing perpendicularly over my head; when the foot of the electrometer touched the earth, the electricity disappeared; and repeating afterwards the experiment, I found the divergency did not exceed one line."

"Directing now my steps towards that part of the cone which fronts the south, I found there another small current which had not, like the rest, proceeded from the crater, but which, on the 18th of July, formed an opening for itself, half a mile below the crater; this eruption had formed a small mountain of a conic form, with a lateral opening, through which the current flowed in a breadth of half a mile, and to the length of a mile. My guide informed me, that it was from the inferior opening of this small cone that the smoke, mixed with sand and light dross, issued, which occasionally concealed the fire from the great crater.

"This partial eruption was not visible from Catania, on account of the interposition of *Monte Rosso,* immediately between the summit of Etna and that city.

"The appearance of these two small streams is not so horrible as that of *Bronte,* on account of their being of different colours, produced by the iron in the lava; which is deprived of its inflammable substance by the sulphuric acid, rendered more effective by heat.

"I examined many insulated pieces, darted to the distance of one or two miles, and remarked their figure to be a pretty regular oval; their larger diameter was five, and their smaller three feet; I found a similar block projected the distance of three miles, its diameter one way was eight, the other four feet; its prodigious weight had occasioned it to bury itself almost entirely in the drosses, and its surface alone was visible.

"Pieces of such great bulk are not numerous; but it is impossible to calculate the immense quantity of light and heavy drosses, which, at various elevations, cover the cone itself, and the country for several miles around; and which, during the most violent part of the eruption, fell in the form of rain. The streams of solid lava added together would form a solid mass, including interstices between the parted streams, of *6,218,661,276* cubic feet.

PRODUCTION OF THE ERUPTIONS OF THE MONTH OF JULY, 1787.

"I have minutely examined the productions of this eruption, which may be reduced to the following varieties.

Drosses and powders.

"No. I. The first rain of volcanic matter, at first sight, appeared to consist of a yellowish Puzzolana, such as is found near the craters of volcanoes, after their having been long extinct; it is composed of pieces from the size of dice down to that of the finest powder; and is a porous lava, light, tender, and somewhat resembling an argillaceous substance, which is astringent to the tongue; some of the grains are hard lava, heavy, ferruginous, and in round particles. Nearly half of this first volcanic rain consisted of very fine powders; these, seen through a microscope, appear to be composed, 1. of crystals of black schorl*, which partially retain their prismatic shape, and are partially eaten by rust; 2. vitreous grains of similar schorl; 3. grains of lava which have undergone alteration, and are reddened or whitened by vapour; 4. crystals of felspar, detached, and although somewhat decomposed, preserving their rhomboidal form; 5. other crystals of felspar adhering to lava, changed and covered with farina externally, but internally untouched; 6. fragments of lava with small crystals, similar to the arsenical ruby; 7. others incrusted with flowers of sulphur; 8. vitrifactions of no regular figure, porous vitrifactions, and a species of black glass or obsidian, transparent at the edges and of a dark green colour.

"The matter here analysed was collected on the snows of the crater at Trifoglietto.

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* Schorl was then a name for siderite, or hornblende.—P.

o. II. Heavy drosses of nearly an oval
and weighing from six to eight and nine
; such were projected the distance of
iles from the crater; superficially they are
d, their pores are glossy, and are five or
es in diameter. The centre of these
has rounded and pretty regular pores;
ains crystals of white felspar confusedly
ed, and some volcanic chrysolites. The
s of felspar preserve their transparency,
merely a little glazed, while the chryso-
ve undergone a species of fusion, which
mbined their grains, and rendered their
convex.

ese drosses are found round the crater,
lly from the southern to the eastern side,
as in the valley of *Bue*.

. III. Light whitish drosses, similar to
ernous pumice-stone of Lipari; they have
e fibrous texture and prolonged pores;
tle light drosses, of a black colour, ad-
this pumice, which separately floats on
er, but which when attached to the black
, is carried by their gravity to the bottom:
he first instance known of Etna having
ed a similar substance.

und on the W. S. W. torrent of lava, near
ter.

" No. IV. Light drosses in separate pieces; the largest are ten inches long, one in width, and two in breadth; from this size they diminish to that of a pigeon's-egg; their pores are rounded, glossy, vitrified, and of a pitch black; some of them seem to be damp as soot; seen through a magnifying-glass, they appear a real vitrifaction, porous, and of a greenish colour.

" These drosses are found at a greater distance from the crater than the former; some even as far from it as six miles.

Sand. " No. V. A very fine and shining sand, which, seen through a microscope, is found to be composed of grains of volcanic chrysolites, transparent, and of a golden green, and greenish colour. Among the sand also are fragments of transparent quartz, and laminated felspar.

" Sand of this description fell at Catania, on the 18th of July.

" No. VI. Light sand, formed of small grains and filaments of a glossy vitrifaction, analogous to the drosses No. IV.

" This sand fell in every part of the second region; and on the confines of the first, from the eastward to the south and south-east, on the 18th of July; it is mingled with fragments of the drosses before noticed.

" No. VII. Puzzolana composed half of crystals of black schorl, which have received a kind of varnish from fire; of fragments of drosses such as described No. III.; of chrysolites, some yellow and transparent, and others opake and of dull green colour at their edges; of small crystals of white felspar in rhomboidal laminæ, some detached, others united together, and grouped with crystals of schorl, some of them superficially vitrified. The crystals of schorl preserve almost perfectly their natural figure: they are chiefly detached in octagonal prisms, somewhat compressed, and with two broad and one narrow side, terminated by a dyedral summit with hexagonal faces; they present some slight varieties.

"This matter, which fell on the 19th of July, did not extend beyond the middle region, where it spread from the S. E. by S. to the S. W. wherever the watery cloud mixed with the smoke which contained it was carried, and from which it was precipitated by the rain.

Pebbles of lava.

"No. VIII. Pieces of lava tolerably compact, of an oval or wedge-shaped form, from two or three to twelve inches in length, and from one to six inches in thickness; the surface vitrified, and exhibiting small pores; their interior similar to that of No. II. They resemble pebbles rounded by water, and are remarkable among the drosses, amid which they are found, on account of their singular shape.

"They are collected on the cone of Etna, lying among light drosses.

"No. IX. Other pieces of the same form, but more compact: the surface of these is more smooth, and is sprinkled with white spots, which seem produced by the vitrifaction of the felspar; the internal part of these pieces assimilates with obsidian.

"These are found in the same place as the last.

"No. X. Oval pieces, nearly two inches in length, composed of two parts of white felspar transparent and glazed, some yellow chrysolites, and some prismatic crystals of black schorl; the surface of this specimen was changed by fire, which had chiefly affected the schorl, occasioning it to lose its angles.

"Found near the crater.

"No. XI. A compound stone, divisible in parts, with a vitreous incrustation: one portion exactly resembling lava, which elicits sparks when struck with steel; the laminæ are distinguished one from the other by their different colours, the result of a calcination which has acted differently on the various component matters; in it mica and felspar are found in an unaltered state. In one of the laminæ are crystals of prismatic schorl; and in all the cavities is a white fibrous radiating matter, which I conceive to be asbestos in a changed condition, owing to the action of fire.

"It is found on the current of lava, at the foot of the cone.

Lavas.

"No. XII. A grey lava with earthy grains, which, notwithstanding, yields sparks with steel; its base is composed of a great number of points and laminæ of felspar, with some crystals of black vitreous and prismatic schorl, and a few grains of greenish chrysolite; this lava, on being moistened, yields a smell like clay, as also do the two following lavas.

"It is a result of the lesser eruption towards the south.

"No. XIII. Compact lava showing a vitreous fracture, the base of which consists of small shining points, resembling talc, mingled with diminutive lamellæ of white felspar, and some chrysolites of a dull green colour: this specimen was apparently fissile.

"This proceeds from the same eruption.

"No. XIV. A lava of a dark grey colour, of the same species as the foregoing; it is of rougher grain, and the talc still preserving its lustre has become agglutinated, and compressed by a kind of calcination.

" Its origin similar to the last.

" No. XV. A black lava with a base of felspar and chrysolite, to which fire has imparted different colours; it comprehends rhomboidal crystals of felspar, and crystals of vitreous schorl and mica.

" From the eruption of the west-south-west.

" No. XVI. Lava in beds of different substances: one of them is compact, very hard, of a fine grain, with laminæ of felspar; the other has regular pores, with laminæ of felspar which cross each other, and vitrified grains of a greenish hue and semi-transparent; this lava, on being moistened, yields a strong smell like clay.

" It is a product of the same eruption as the lava of the preceding article.

" No. XVII. A compact and very hard lava, with a vitreous fracture; its black base contains small laminæ of felspar, with a few crystals of vitreous schorl.

" From the same current of lava as the preceding.

" No. XVIII. A very hard and compact lava, black, and sprinkled with points varying in size,

rmed by a black shining glass, which still re-
ins the figure of the crystals of schorl contain-
d in the base, which was on the point of fusing
to a state of homogenous glass.

“From the same eruption.

“No. XIX. A dark grey lava of a rugged
acture, the base of which contains similar
ales of talc as No. XIII. and No. XIV. with
me laminæ of felspar faintly apparent.

“Found in large oval masses ejected by the
lcano.

“No. XX. A porous lava, of similar nature
o the preceding, with a stratum of vitrifaction,
ingled with laminæ of mica, radiantly disposed.
rom the same.

“No. XXI. A species of stalactite, or con-
etion, found under the preceding lavas; it pre-
nts three varieties:

“1. With a friable base, and laminæ appa-
ntly of mica.

“2. With a coating of silvery talc.

“3. With a coating two lines in thickness,
nsisting of a white powder, which is salt of
dlitz, deprived of its water of crystallisa-
n.

“No. XXII. An incrustation of selenite, of a
ngled white and red colour, in thin strata,

forming a coating of two lines in thickness, on which are small grains of a similar nature*.

" Found in the fissures of the w. s. w. current of lava.

" No. XXIII. Deliquescent sea-salt with a martial basis, which flows from those light drosses which are of a reddish yellow colour.

" From the same fissures.

" No. XXIV. Martial vitriol adhering to many of the preceding drosses, now of a lively red, now of a greenish yellow, and now of other colours: these drosses remain yet partially covered with the selenite of No. XXII.

" From the same spots as the last: in the eruption of this w. s. w. current it was very abundant.

" No. XXV. Martial sal ammoniac, sublimated in very thin needles, two or three lines in length, and adherent to a light cellular lava of a reddish yellow colour: on examining these needles with a microscope, small articulations are clearly distinguished, composed of octaedra, placed one on the other.

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* " These incrustations of selenite are found in very great abundance in the two new currents of lava; they evince the prompt activity and powerful effect of the sulphuric acid on the calcareous molecules of lava, especially when assisted by heat."

" From the same fissures.

" No. XXVI. A hard lava, the base of which contains many small laminæ of felspar and grains of volcanic chrysolite, coloured by fire, and some pretty large clusters of the same kind of chrysolite.

" From the current of lava which flowed towards *Bronte.*

" No. XXVII. A hard, grey, and dullish lava, with abundance of laminæ of felspar, of greater size than in the preceding specimen; they are enveloped in the base of the lava, as well as some crystals of prismatic schorl, and some yellow and greenish chrysolites.

" From the same stream of lava as the preceding.

" The different specimens of lava I have described, show us the nature of the various kinds f primitive stone, which constitute the base of tna; they demonstrate also that the rocks, hich enter into the composition of these eruptions of lava, undergo little change from fire; nd that, in the last eruption, the granitoid schist ad been chiefly attacked*.

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* " From the indications of the Commander Dolomieu, who has covered in the Neptunian mountains (or those of Peloro) all the mitive rocks found in the various lavas evolved from Etna, I have elf made a large collection of them; these I have also compared

mountain.

"The epoch of the first stream of issued from the crater, which history served, is that noticed by *Julius Obseque* testimony is corroborated by *Orosius,* happened in the year 227 from the bu Rome.

"The second is described by *Fazelli* lar witness, by *Philoteus,* and *Selvaggi* curred in the year 1536.

"The third happened in 1607, a scribed by *Carrera* and *Guarneri.*

"*Massa* speaks of the fourth, in 1688.

"Father *Amico* mentions the fifth, venth, and eighth, in the years 1727, 17 and 1747.

"And finally the Canon *Recupero* the ninth, which occurred in the year

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with the different species of lava, and suppose myse pointing out, with the specimens in my hand, the di to which they belong."

The intelligent Ferrara has given a chronology of the eruptions of Etna; but has only described those of 1800 and 1809 in the following words:

Ferrara's account of the eruptions 1800, 1809.

"1800. In February, the mountain ejected smoke, with those powders falsely called volcanic cinders and ashes. During the night of the 27th, the inhabitants of Zafarana, situated about the middle of the cone, on the east, were awaked with the horrible explosions of the mountain, and saw rising to a prodigious height immense columns of fire, which often sparkled with long and tortuous lightnings. Their summits expanded, and dropped black matter, which burst on the fire beneath. This phenomenon was accompanied with a tremendous roar, like that of a ruinous hurricane; and a strong west wind which arose, bore to the east all the ejected matter, which formed on the lower skirts rain, sand, and drosses, which, rustling as they fell, occasioned a singular and horrible noise. They deposited a bed half a foot thick. This phenomenon was repeated on the 4th of March; the eruption of inflamed masses was more copious, and the southern wind carried the dust even to Milazzo. The inhabitants of the places in that direction, but more near the volcano, were greatly incommoded with this dreadful shower. At Malvagna, wards, in a line, which from the third or open region of the mountain passed the woody region till it reached the cultivated lands of Castiglione and Linguagrossa, many new orifices were opened. One was at six miles distance from the first, and the others at unequal distances; while throughout all the space many fissures appeared and subsidencies of the ground. From these new orifices, after they had darted immense clouds of dark smoke, which appeared like horrid rocks hanging in the air, and from which the drosses which fell in iron sleet, rushing and dashing against each other, produced a clamour which filled the neighbourhood with dismay; on the 28th, at the approach of night, were ejected torrents of lava, whilst the mountain suffered the most violent convulsions, and resounded with horrible bellowings, which were heard even as far as Catania. The thunders of these apertures were pretty frequent, and were repeated progressively from one to the other, till they reached the crater. The eruption continued for the remaining days of March, and the beginning of April, when the lava ceased; after having covered a space of eight miles in length, and four hundred and fifty feet in breadth. Around the two chief orifices, in which the fire seemed at last concentrated, were formed two large conical masses of ejected matter, one of them having two summits. The shocks continued to be felt in the succeeding months, but the eastern skirts toward Aci were the most agitated; and in some parts it appeared as if the subterranean winds and vapours would have opened new apertures, struggling as it were to get loose; while on the same spots long fissures appeared, occasioned by the sinking of the ground. But the circle of these great agents of nature seems to have been confined by the mountain; for, in the following months, the shocks arrived at Catania with an undulation which was evidently occasioned by a shock from the north to the south: and afterwards, while Etna remained perfectly quiet, these undulations violently and repeatedly shook many places of the southern part of Sicily, called Valdinoto; and have continued, with still more force and frequency, in the present year 1810."

To return to a more immediate consideration of tufo, as connected with the present design, this important substance may be arranged under the following divisions:

HYPONOME I. HARD TUFO.

This has often the appearance of a grey argillaceous stone, and is used for building in various parts of Italy. It is generally grey and porous, and sometimes contains small leucites, whence this kind is called partridge-eyed tufo*. It may also embrace fragments of granite; but when these are numerous, and joined with fragments of marble and other substances, it assumes the name of *peperino*, which is a volcanic bricia, or glutenite.

Micronome **1.** *Of Clay, Sand, Powder, Pumice, &c.*

This is the most usual form of tufo; but the clay seems to be chiefly inserted by the infiltration of the waters from superior soils and eminences.

Tufo, from Herculaneum, Pompeia, Iceland, &c. &c.

Hard tufo, from Mont Anis and Polignac, in Auvergne, where it is used for building.

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* Patrin, v. 298. The isle Ventotiene (Dol. Ponces, 41) consists almost entirely of a volcanic tufo, a soft stone with an argillaceous base, including fragments of lava, slags, pumice, &c.

The same, with bitumen and chalcedony, from Clermont.

Micronome 2. Of Dross, and pulverised Lava.

This, in the course of ages, assumes considerable hardness, while it shews its origin by its black colour, arising from the drosses or *scoriæ;* the latter are sometimes red from calcination, whence seems to arise the name of Monte Rosso, ejected by Etna in the terrible eruption of 1669; but the surface at least is chiefly incoherent. This tufo in particular sometimes affects the magnetic needle. Black tufo sometimes resembles wacken.

A tufo of fragments of lava, drosses, sand, augite, and conchitic limestone, in a paste of marl. Ferrara, p. 67.

Micronome 3. With fragments of Granite, or other substances.

When these are numerous and closely set, the stone becomes a volcanic glutenite; but they are sometimes rare and remote.

A tufo of lava and limestone, from Cape Passaro and the rocks of the Cyclops, Sicily*.

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* Ferr. 181.

HYPONOME II. SOFT TUFO.

This is either found in an incoherent form, or easily crumbles into small fragments. When it chiefly consists of comminuted pumice it is called, in its recent state, *lapillo* or *rapillo;* and sometimes, though improperly, *white puzzolana;* for the absence of iron must render it unfit to be used as a cement, which is the chief quality of puzzolana. It sometimes consists of minute scoriæ, or dross, in which case it is called *black puzzolana;* and at Naples a *rapillo;* now constituting, ac- cording to Dolomieu, almost all the mount around Etna, with nine-tenths of that mount itself*.

Lapillo.

Puzzolana.

The proper puzzolana, also called Trass Tarras, which is used to consolidate *buildi* under water, is a ferruginous clay, of a gr brown, or reddish colour; and is more likely th any of the others to be a muddy ejection from volcanoes.

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* Dolomieu, Etna, 323, 328. Volcanic scoriæ, like tho smithy, or more porous, form all the conic mountains around and perhaps nine-tenths of its mass. At Naples they are c *rapillo.* (Dol. Etna, p. 328.) They are of the nature of while puzzolana is burnt clay. Ferrara, a superior judge, de the extent of the tufos, and says they do not form one half of p. 336.

Micronome 1. White Tufo.

This consists, as already mentioned, of comminuted pumice, and often presents larger fragments of that stone. It may, from the various influence of the waters, be indurated in some parts, and incoherent in others.

Micronome 2. Black and red Tufo.

Tufo, of comminuted black dross, from the mountains of Iceland.

The same, from Etna, and its filial hills.

Tufo of small red scoriæ, from Monte Rosso. This mountain, chiefly formed of volcanic sand, is 1000 feet in height.

Micronome 3. Tarras or Puzzolana.

Tarras.

This is chiefly a ferruginous clay, as already explained; but ferruginous tufos in general may be applied to the same purposes. The tarras found near the Rhine is of the same nature and quality; and is supposed, by impartial authors, to be of volcanic origin. A more candid and equitable judge cannot be invoked than the patient and experimental Saussure, who not only allows the mountain of Chenevari, and some others in the south of France, to be of volcanic origin; but has also published an interesting account of his journey to the extinct volcanoes in the Brisgaw, being in the Black Forest adjacent to the Rhine*. Puzzolana forms a remarkable feature of several extinct volcanoes; but Mr. Kirwan, who has an inconceivable aversion for those grand phenomena, often passes in silence the most cogent authorities against his system, and argues that tarras is of a pseudo-volcanic origin. Yet his accounts of these two substances, so useful to the arts, and especially to a maritime people, are more carefully composed than those of any other writer, and deserve transcription.

Kirwan's account.

" PUZZOLANA.

" Reddish, or reddish brown; grey, or greyish black. That of Naples is generally grey; that of Civita Vecchia more generally reddish, or reddish brown. Dolomieu's notes, 32.

" Its surface rough, uneven, and of a baked appearance. It comes to us in pieces of from the size of a nut to that of an egg.

" Its internal lustre, 0. Its transparency, 0.

" Its fracture uneven, or earthy, and porous; commonly filled with particles of pumice, quartz, scoriæ, &c.

" Hardness, 3. Very brittle. Sp. gr. from

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* Journal de Physique. New Series, vol. i.

2,570, which is that of the black, to 2,785, rarely 2,8. Has an earthy smell.

" It is not diffusible in cold water; but in boiling water it gradually deposites a fine earth. It does not effervesce with acids.

" Heated, it assumes a darker colour, and easily melts into a black slag; or, with borax, into a yellowish green glass.

" It is magnetic before it is heated, but not after. This is the most remarkable of its properties.

" By Mr. Bergman's analysis, it contains from 55 to 60 per cent of silex, 19 to 20 of argil, 5 or 6 of lime, and from 15 to 20 of iron. 3 Bergm. p. 194.

" When mixed with a small proportion of lime it quickly hardens, and this induration takes place even under water. This singular property appears to me to proceed from the magnetic state of the iron it contains; for this iron being unoxygenated, subtilly divided, and dispersed through the whole mass, and thus offering a large surface, quickly decomposes the water with which it is mixed when made into mortar, and forms a hard substance analogous to the specular iron ore; as it does in the iron tubes, in which water is decomposed, in Mr. Lavoisier's and Dr. Priestley's experiments. For in these the iron swells and increases in bulk, Mem. Par. 1781, p. 277: and so does puzzolana when formed into mortar, Higgins on Cements, 125. One principal use of lime seems to be to heat the water, as while cold it cannot readily pervade the caked argil that invests the ferruginous particles; yet, in time, even cold water may pervade it, and produce hardness; and hence lavas become harder when moistened, as M. Dolomieu has observed, Ponces, 417. If the mortar be long exposed to the atmosphere, fixed air, as well as pure air, will unite to the iron, rust will be produced, and the mortar will not then harden, as Dr. Higgins has also noticed. Clay, over which lava has flowed, is frequently converted into puzzolana, Ponces, 332. But volcanic scoriæ never afford it; ibid; either because they are much calcined, or retain sulphur, or its acid."

" TRASS OR TARRAS.

" I couple this with puzzolana, on account of their similarity to each other, and not because I look upon it as constantly, and necessarily, a volcanic production. On the contrary, I believe it to be generally the product of pseudo-volcanoes, or external fires.

" It is found in many places, but principally near Andernach, in the vicinity of the Rhine; also ar Frankfort, Cologne, Pleith, &c. and there lled *tuffstein*.

" Its colour is grey, brown, or yellowish.

" Its surface rough and porous.

" Its lustre and transparency, 0.

" Its fracture, commonly earthy, rarely lamel- ; it contains fragments resembling pumice ough not real pumice, Voigt *Fulda*, 221); also gments of argillite and basaltin (siderite); often anches of trees half cleared, and impressions of ves, 2 Nose, 182. Mica, iron ore, and other terogeneities, are more frequent in it than in zzolana, 3 Bergm. 196.

" Its hardness from 5 to 7.

" Feels dry and harsh. Scarcely effervesces th acids.

" It is not diffusible in cold water; but in hot gives an earthy smell, and deposites a finer th.

" It melts into a greyish brown slag.

" It is found in valleys, some feet under the face, to which no streams of water have had cess. Sometimes in columnar masses of a grey, Isabella yellow colour, some round and some adrangular, standing close to each other, and rming internally one common mass. 3 Berl. eob. 199.

" According to Mr. Bergman, it consists of nearly the same principles as puzzolana, only the calcareous seems more plentiful in this.

"Artificial tarras, or puzzolana, is made by burning clays or slates that abound in iron, and then grinding them to a fine powder."*

Of Ireland.

A red substance is found in the north of Ireland, particularly in Lord Antrim's Deer-park, near Glenarne, which has a burnt appearance, and much resembles the puzzolana of the extinct volcanoes of France. It might perhaps be applied to architectural purposes. Faujas, who rendered a service to his country in discovering the puzzolanas of Vivarais, gives the following observations†.

Uses of puzzolana.

"Puzzolanas are an object of the first utility in hydraulic constructions. We cannot build with solidity in the sea, without using this volcanic production, by mixing it with two portions of lime to one of this natural cement, of which a well-united mortar is formed. Vitruvius has, in his architecture, devoted a chapter to the origin of this substance, and the property it possesses of hardening very soon in sea-water, as well as fresh, when it has been amalgamated with strong lime; it then perfectly resists the corrosive action of marine salt.

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* Kirwan, Min. i. 411.

† Annales du Museum. It is truly surprising that he has omitted this important article in his large Classification of Volcanic Substances. *Geologie*, tome ii. p. 401—678.

"There are in Vivarais, Velay, as well as in Auvergne, as good mines of puzzolana as those of Italy; and yet we still use the puzzolana of the environs of Naples: which shows that much time is necessary to change the customs of men, even in the most simple things.

"The trass of the environs of Andernach, on the left bank of the Rhine, is a kind of puzzolana formed of small fragments of pumice, and several species of lavas, more or less altered and agglutinated in the manner of volcanic tufos*. Trass is transported by water as far as Dort, to be reduced to powder in stamping mills worked by the wind. Trass, thus pulverised, circulates throughout Holland; and is used with the greatest success for all constructions in masonry, in a country where water is every where found in digging the earth: the Dutch also supply England with trass."

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* "I have given the description of the quarries of trass in the first number of *Annales du Museum*, vol. i."

NOME V. PUMICE.

Former rocks.

This substance deserves to be ranged among the rocks, as in the isle of Lipari, whence it is chiefly brought into commerce, it appears in the form of large currents*. Pumice also abounds at the smaller volcanoes of the isles of Santarin and Vulcano: and, according to Troil, Hecla presents vast quantities of brown and black pumice. The volcanoes of Ternate, and other Molucca isles, also eject such prodigious quantities of this substance that the ocean appears covered for many leagues.

Chiefly felspar.

Different lavas may become pumice by some peculiar modification of the volcanic agents. Felspar in particular has been detected passing into pumice: and according to the degrees of heat and other circumstances, it may be more or less porous and light†. That which only presents small cavities may be termed porous while the more lax may be styled vesicular.

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[*] Patrin, v. 289, from Dolomieu's Lipari.

[†] Ferrara, p. 304, mentions a large specimen ejected by Etna in 1802, of which one half was lava, or melted siderite, the other pumice or melted felspar. See also his account of the pumices of Lipari, p. 215.

In his visit to the little isle of Lipari, which, though only six miles in length and four in breadth, is singularly interesting from the pumices, and great variety of volcanic glasses of all kinds and colours, which it contains, Spallanzani has minutely described this substance; and the spot whence it is exported to all parts of Europe, as it is useful in many of the arts. On such occasions, the words of the original observer are to be preferred, not only for the sake of accuracy, but because the impressions of the scene are best conveyed by a spectator; not to add that they diversify the style, by imparting somewhat of a dramatic interest to the narrative.

Pumices of Lipari.

"I had now continued my tour in the boat, till I approached Campo Bianco (the White Field), distant three miles from the haven of Lipari, and so called because it is a lofty and extensive mountain, composed entirely of white pumices. When seen at a distance, it excites the idea that it is covered with snow from the summit to the foot. Almost all the pumices that are employed for various purposes in Europe, are brought from this immense mine; and Italian, French, and other vessels continually repair hither to take in cargoes of this commodity: the captain of the ship which had brought me to Lipari, had sailed from Marseilles

Campo Bianco.

to carry back a freight of this merchandise. I was not, however, actuated merely by those motives of curiosity that might induce any traveller to visit this remarkable mountain; I proposed to examine it with the eye of a philosopher and a naturalist.

Origin.

"The pumice-stone, with respect to its origin, though universally admitted to be the product of fire, is one of those bodies which have divided the opinions of the chemists and naturalists both ancient and modern. It may, in fact, be affirmed that it has given rise to as many hypotheses and extravagant suppositions, as the question formerly so much agitated relative to the nature of the yellow and grey amber. Without noticing the more absurd of these, I shall only mention that Pott, Bergman, and Demeste imagined that pumices were amianthuses decomposed by fire; Wallerius, that they were coal or schistus calcined; Sage, that they were scorified marls; and lastly, the Commendator Dolomieu, that they were granites rendered tumefied and fibrous by the action of the fire and aëriform substances.

"The most effectual method to investigate the truth in so obscure a question, appeared to me to make the most accurate and minute observations on the spot; to collect and attentively examine the pumices most suitable to this purpose, and to make further experiments on them after my return to Pavia; which practice I likewise observed with respect to the other volcanic products.

Mountain of pumice.

"Campo Bianco is a mountain that rises almost perpendicularly from the sea, and which seen at a distance appears to be about a quarter of a mile in height, and above half a mile in breadth. No plants grow on it, except a few which bear no fruit, and likewise grow on the tops of the Alps. Its sides are streaked with a great number of furrows, that grow deeper and wider as they approach the bottom, and have been formed by the rains, which easily corrode and excavate a substance so soft and yielding as pumice. The sea at the foot of it has likewise occasioned great devastations, by means of which we discovered a large vein of horizontal lava, on which the last waves die away when the sea becomes calm. The formation of this lava was, therefore, prior to the vast accumulation of pumices which rest upon it.

In beds.

"On attentively viewing this prodigious mass of pumice, we soon perceive that it is not one solid whole, and forming only one solid single piece; but that it is an aggregation of numerous beds or strata of pumices, successively placed on each other; which beds are distinguishable by their colour, and in many places project from the mountain. They are almost all disposed horizontally, and their position is not dissimilar to the stratifications so frequently met with in calcareous mountains. Each bed of pumice does not form a distinct whole, which might lead us to suppose that they had flowed at different intervals, and every current produced a bed or stratum; but it consists of an aggregate of balls of pumice united together, but without adhesion. It is hence evident that the pumices were thrown out by the volcano in a state of fusion, and took a globose form in the air, which they preserved at the time of their sudden congelation. We find many such eruptions of pumices in the Phlegrean Fields; as, for example, that which overwhelmed and buried the unfortunate town of Pompeii. The excavations which have been made to exhibit to view some parts of that city, manifestly show, that repeated ejections of small pumices in immense quantities from Vesuvius, have covered it with vast accumulations of that substance, disposed in different beds or strata.

" A great quantity of these Liparese pumices, of a globular form, are first met with on the shore near Campo Bianco; but as I doubted whether the action of the waves might not concur to produce the roundness of their figure, I rather chose to make my observations on those that actually formed the beds; which I did, by climbing up one of the sides where the ascent, though difficult, was not impracticable. Here I found pumices approaching, some more some less, to the globular form; and of different sizes, some not being larger than nuts, and others a foot or more in diameter, with innumerable sizes between these extremes. Though the ground colour of them all is white, in some it inclines to yellow, and in others to grey. They swim in water, do not give sparks with steel, nor cause the least motion in the magnetic needle. Their fracture is dry and rough to the touch; their angles and thinner parts are slightly transparent; and their texture in all of them, when viewed through the lens, appears vitreous; but this texture has diversities, which it will be proper to specify.

Globular.

"Some of these pumices are so compact that the smallest pore is not visible to the eye; nor do they exhibit the least trace of a filamentous nature. When viewed through a lens with a strong light, they appear an irregular accumulation of small flakes of ice; their compactness,

Compact.

however, does not prevent their swimming on the water.

Porous. "Others are full of pores and vacuities of a larger size, usually of a round figure; and their texture is formed by filaments and streaks, in general parallel to each other, of a shining silver whiteness; and which, at first view, might seem to be silken, did they not present to the touch the usual roughness of the pumice.

"These varieties are not only observable in different globes of pumice, but frequently in the same: it is therefore indubitable that these differences are not intrinsical and essential to the nature of pumices; but accidental, and arising from the action of aëriform fluids, which dilating them in many places, when they were in a state of fusion, have produced that multitude of pores, and those filaments and subtile streaks that denote a separation of the parts; whereas the other pumices, which have not been acted on by these gases, have preserved that compactness which results from the force of aggregation.

Fracture. "The fractures of the compact pumices are, in some places, shaded with a blackish but at the same time shining tinge; which, when carefully examined, is found to be caused by a greater, though still a very slight, degree of vitrification of the pumice itself; either because the fire has there acted with somewhat more force, or because the parts were there more easily vitrifiable.

"The pumices hitherto described, form one of the species which the Liparese sell to foreign traders.

"None of these, so far as can be discerned by the eye, or even with the assistance of the lens, contain any extraneous bodies; but were we too hastily to conclude that they really do not, we should commit an error, as their vitrification by artificial means will prove. When kept in the furnace during an hour, they become only more friable and of a reddish yellow colour; but when continued in the same heat for a longer time, they condense into a vitreous and semitransparent mass, within which appear a number of small white felspar crystals, that were not visible in the pumice, because they were of the same colour. These stones, however, are not seen in every pumice thus fused; either because it did not contain them, or because they have melted into one homogenous mass with the pumice. This is one of the many important cases in which we are able, by the means of common fire, to discover the composition of volcanic

Effects of heat.

been sufficiently described: I shall only add, that it is found in considerable quantities in Campo Bianco; but solely in detached pieces, and not forming currents or veins; whence it is evident that it has been ejected from the volcano, and has not flowed in the manner of lava.

"The second species is cut by the labourers in parallelopipeds, about twenty-two inches long and eight broad. This pumice is of a dark dirty colour, contains no extraneous bodies, gives a few sparks with steel, and is so light that some pieces of it will float on the water. It is formed by agglomeration of pumiceous bubbles, which are, as it were, conglutinated together, and incline more or less to an oblong figure. To detail their various sizes would be useless prolixity. I shall only say, that from the very minute and, if I may so term them, infinitesimal, they increase in size till some of them exceed an inch in diameter, though the latter are less numerous than the former. They are all extremely friable, as their sides are very thin, and always semi-vitreous. The glass of many of them is white, and has some transparency; but in others is dull, and almost entirely opake.

"As I do not know that this species of pumice has ever been described before, though it certainly well deserves attention, I would wish my description to be as clear and explicit as possible. It has been already said, that many lavas, and other volcanic productions, on refusion, become cellular. To apply this to the pumice in question, would be an error. A lava, which has undergone this change by the action of elastic gases, continues to form one whole, though interrupted by these multiplied pores. The pumice of which I now speak is principally formed by an accumulation of small vitreous vesicles, which attached themselves to each other while they were yet soft from the action of the fire; and which, from their globose figure, not adhering except in a few points, have left many vacuities very visible in the fracture of the pieces. The labourers who dig these pumices, after they have shaped them into parallelopipeds, take them on their backs and carry them down to the shore, where they pile them up in large heaps, to be ready for sale when opportunity shall offer. We are not to imagine, however, that this species of pumice is to be found in every part of the mountain: the workmen, to find what they call the vein of it, are obliged to make great excavations, and frequently without success; which, as they told me, in this case, as in fishing for coral, often depends on chance. When they have found the vein, they dig it, following its direction; in which laborious employment a number of men are occupied for whole weeks, the vein being sometimes a hundred and fifty, two hundred, or even three hundred feet long, and large in proportion. These veins are called *Faraglioni*. I have examined them, and satisfied myself that the accounts I received were true. Pumice-dust, and large heaps of the first species of pumice, with some scattered vitrifications, usually cover these veins, which, when viewed with the attentive eye of the naturalist, give reason to believe that they are long tracts of pumice, which once flowed in a liquid state. Currents. Their bubbles, frequently lengthened in the direction of the vein, seem likewise to prove the same.

" M. Dolomieu, who first suggested that many pumices have flowed in currents like lavas, observed that at Campo Bianco the lighter pumices lie above the heavier; in the same manner as in the common currents of lava, the porous lavas occupy the highest place. I have certainly observed this disposition; but sometimes it proves fallacious: for if the excavation be continued below the vein which forms the second species of pumice, we frequently again find masses of extremely light and pulverulent pumice.

" The first action of the fire of the furnace

ckens the sides of the vitreous vesicles, of the
:ond species, and diminishes the internal pores;
longer continued heat entirely annihilates the
res, and changes the pumice into a fixed, ob-
ıre, homogenous, and hard glass, which gives
ırks plentifully with steel.

Another kind.

" The third species is likewise an object of
ffic with the natives of the island, who dig it
the same places where they find the second;
d, in like manner, shape it into parallelopi-
lons. This is likewise an aggregate of bub-
s, but differing from those of the former in
eral respects. Those, as we have seen, are
ıglutinated together in some points, while
y are separated in others, so that we can fre-
ently detach them without breaking; while
se, on the contrary, are so incorporated by
ferent solid points, that if we attempt the se-
ation of one, we break the others that are
ıtiguous. Here the elastic gases, investing
pumiceous substance in several points, have
panded it in every part into tumours and
rities, nearly as we see in raised and baked
ıte. It is worthy remark, that frequently
en we break one vesicle, we meet with an-
ıer within it, and concentrical. There is like-
se another difference between these two pu-
ces. The vesicles of the second species

are all more or less vitrified; but many of the third show no signs of vitrification, are extremely friable, and of a pale red colour.

"This pumice, though destitute of any fibrous texture, is specifically lighter than water. To obtain it, large pieces of white pumice, of the first species, in which it is enveloped, must be removed; and it commonly lies in long tracts, in the direction of which its vesicles are sometimes lengthened, which may induce us to suspect that this likewise, when it was liquid, formed small currents. It contains no extraneous bodies.

"In the furnace it condenses into an obscure mass of glass, almost opake, but little porous, and sufficiently hard to give sparks with steel.

"These are the three kinds of pumice which the people of Lipari dig for sale. The first is employed in polishing different substances; and the other two are used in the construction of arched vaults, and the corners of buildings."

From these descriptions the following arrangement naturally arises.

HYPONOME I. POROUS PUMICE.

From Lipari. It sometimes presents small crystals of felspar.

Porous pumice, from Hecla.

HYPONOME II. VESICULAR PUMICE.

om Lipari, Santorin, Hecla, Ternate, &c.

icronome 1. Fibrous felsite.

is kind of pumice, described by Dolomieu,
nes the form of distinct elongated fibres, and
imes occurs with minute crystals of felspar.

NOME VI. OBSIDIAN.

is division will include all the Volcanic
es and Amels*; which are nearly connect-
d often pass into each other.

e volcanic glass called obsidian, appears in
quantities as to constitute rocks.

n the Isle of Lipari, the mountain *della*
gna is wholly composed of glass and amels.
ms a promontory which extends 800 fa-
into the sea, and which is more than 3000
cumference. Spallanzani says, that this
of vitrified substances cannot be better
ared than to a great river, which, dividing
into a thousand branches, should be preci-

Patrin's account.
Lipari.

Johnson, as before mentioned: *enamel* is properly the ap-
of the *amel* to another substance.

pitated by a rapid declivity, and suddenly frozen. There are several currents, one above another; their thickness varying, in the same current, from one foot to twelve.

"Some of these substances are compact; others are so porous that they resemble froth, and float on water. In the cavities of some are observed capillary threads perfectly vitrified.

"As the volcanoes of Lipari have ceased to be active, even before the times of history, these glassy substances must have existed more than 3000 years; and they have not undergone the least alteration.

"All volcanoes do not produce these vitreous substances: they are extremely rare in the ejections of Etna, as well as in most countries of Europe.

France. "Faujas only found obsidian in one *place* in France; at Chenavari near Rochemaure, in Vivarais; and there were but three pieces which he collected. It is an amel, perfectly black, with rounded vesicles of about half a line diameter.

Iceland. "The volcanoes of Iceland are very prolific in vitreous substances; and what is improperly called Iceland agate, is a volcanic amel, of a fine black, almost free from pores, and susceptible of a perfect polish.

"The *piedra de Galinazzo,* regarded by Caylus as the obsidian of the ancients, is a volcanic amel of the province of Quito.

" The volcano of the isle of Bourbon presents very remarkable vitreous ejections: they are filaments of a flexible and yellowish glass, two or three feet in length, sprinkled at intervals with small globules. These threads of glass showed themselves in the eruptions of the 14th of May 1766, and the 17th of July 1791. In the latter, they were carried by the winds, and strewed upon the trees, to the distance of ten leagues. Bourbon.

" The ancient volcanoes of northern Asia have also produced vitreous substances. Near the port of Okhotsk, in the gulf of Kamschatka, there is a volcanic hill called Marikan, formed of a white sand entirely vitreous; and in which are found dispersed, globules of glass and volcanic amel. This very remarkable sand appears at first view to be shelly; for it is all composed of white fragments, resembling mother of pearl, convex on one side and concave on the other. These fragments proceed from the remains of a singular variety of vitreous globules: they are at most of the size of a pea, of a pearly white, perfectly spherical, and exactly like pearls. They are entirely composed of concentric layers, as thin as the peel of an onion, and which separate from each other. They are Marikan.

in miniature, what basaltic balls are on a large scale. These little globules are opake, but the coats which form them are perfectly transparent.

" There are two other varieties of globules in the same sand, entirely different from these: they are less regularly spherical, and have some flat faces: their texture is perfectly solid and compact, and their fracture vitreous.

" Some are of a white and transparent glass, which seems free from bubbles: their size does not exceed that of a hazel-nut.

" The others are opake, and formed of an amel mottled with red and black veins; these are as large as a small egg. Being at Irkutsk in 1785, I received from Mr. Bensing, formerly commandant of Okhotsk, a considerable number of these globules, with a sample of the sand which contains them.

" To judge by analogy, it might be said that basaltic balls were, from the beginning, formed by layers, as they now appear; for the laminar texture of the globules of Okhotsk, seems in no wise owing to any kind of alteration: their thin coats continue, to the centre, of a perfectly pure glass."*

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* Patrin, v. 292. Ferrara, p. 211, 212, may also be consulted for the obsidians of Lipari. He observes, p. 299, that they are of infinite variety, and all formed of felspar melted in an intense heat.

Raven-stone.

The *Piedra de Galinazzo*, above mentioned by M. Patrin, is a kind of obsidian found in Quito and Peru; and is so called, because in blackness it resembles the *raven*. It seems to have been sometimes polished, and used for mirrors; but must not be confounded with *the stone of the Incas*, found in the female tombs, and used for the same purpose; the latter being a compact pyrites, or marcasite of the Arabians, and other early writers on mineralogy.

Glasses of Lipari.

In his account of the island of Lipari, after having mentioned several kinds of volcanic glass, as the pumiceous, reticulated, and capillary, Spallanzani thus proceeds, having apologised for the prolixity of his description as indispensably necessary for the sake of accuracy, in discussions merely scientific.

Spallanzani's account.

" 4. The glasses of the Monte della Castagna, which we have hitherto considered, are those that have a texture more or less porous; we will now proceed to those of a compact structure, of which kind is the fourth species, which may be said to compose nearly one half of the mountain. This glass, if viewed superficially, and as it is found on the spot, has rather the appearance of a red earth than a glass, occasioned by a red earthy coating that invests the glass disposed under it in immense plates; which covering, though in many places it but feebly adheres to it, since it may be removed by simply washing with water, in others is so closely united that it forms the last rind or outermost part of the glass, which induces me to believe that it is a superficial decomposition of it. Beneath this earthy coating the glass appears, which is extremely perfect, and as if it had just come out of the volcano. If we except a few pieces, in which its structure is spungy, it is extremely compact and solid, and therefore much heavier than either of the other three kinds. It is of an olive colour, and transparent when in thin scales, examined by a bright light; but in the mass it appears opake. It gives sparks rather plentifully with steel. Pieces of perfect glass, it is well known, when broken, have their fractures striated, waving, and curved. In this glass some of the fractures are the same; but in general they are conchoids, like those of flints. Its consistence is not perfectly homogenous, as it contains many felspathose points. Its aspect is not lively and brilliant, like that of glass, but somewhat unctuous and dull; from all these qualities, this product appears to be more properly an enamel than a glass; unless we are willing to consider it as one of those volcanic bodies which constitute the middle substance between enamels and glasses.

Venular.

" In my description of the glasses of Lipari, I have observed that several of them are intersected with veins or earthy leaves, by means of which they are easily divided into plates. The same is observable in the present glass, in which we find the same quality as in some marbles, which being cut in the vein may be divided, without any great labour, into large slabs, but which break into small pieces if it be attempted to divide them in any other manner. Some of the workmen who dig the pumices, and were very useful companions to me in my excursions to Campo Bianco and the Monte della Castagna, at my request drove, with heavy hammers, an iron wedge into these earthy veins, and extracted from the common mass of this glass, large plates five feet long, three broad, and two in thickness. To the surface of each plate was attached a coating of hard earthy matter, which still more confirmed me in the opinion I have already given, that this matter had resisted fusion, and, being lighter than the fluid glass, had ascended to the surface; a conjecture further corroborated by the artificial fusion which I made of this glass retaining some portion of this earth, which with difficulty fused, though the glass was inflated, and changed into a frothy enamel.

"This glass slightly cuts the factitious glass; and if the cutting angle of one piece is driven with force along the surface of another, it produces a white and impalpable powder.

True obsidian.

"5. This species of glass completely deserves that appellation, since it is not only the most perfect of all the volcanic glasses of the Eolian isles, but does not in the least respect yield to what is called the Iceland agate, or the pietra di galinazzo of Peru, which is supposed to have been the obsidian stone of the ancients. In the large pieces its colour is extremely black, and it is entirely opake, but the thin leaves are white and transparent: the opacity and blackness may be said to be in the direct ratio of the *thickness*. This glass, which is extremely compact, is free from aëriform bubbles, and from every kind of heterogenousness. It is somewhat harder than the fourth species, and therefore cuts factitious glass more easily, and gives more sparks with steel. Its edges are sharp and cutting.

"M. Faujas, having obtained some specimens of the best glass of Lipari, has made some observations on it proper to be given here. He admits that this species is the same with that of

Iceland; but he remarks, however, that it differs from it in the polish, which appeared to him more unctuous and less vitreous, besides that in the fractures it had not that waving, striated, sçaly appearance, which is proper to the masses of true glass.

"It must be remembered, however, that the specimens of M. Faujas were none of the best: the pieces, at least, which I collected, took so exquisite a polish and lustre, that I do not believe any kind of artificial glass ever received one more beautiful and brilliant. This glass, besides, when in the mass, being opake, became a true mirror; and I therefore find no difficulty in believing that the ancient Peruvians used a similar kind of glass, cut and polished, for mirrors*. This glass likewise could not be broken without exhibiting the undulating scales, lightly striated, which the French vulcanist affirms he could not find in his specimens. While I now write, I have before me a piece with a recent fracture, in which these waves are circular and concentrical, occupying an area of two inches and a half, the common centre of which is the point that received the blow: they resemble in some manner those waves which a stone pro-

Polish.

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* It was rather the stone of the Incas, a compact pyrites. P.

duces round it when it falls perpendicularly into a standing water.

Transparency.

"I cannot omit another remark. M. Faujas says, that the edges of this glass where they are very thin, if presented to a strong light, are a little transparent. The transparency of the thinnest parts of the glass on which I made my observations, when compared to that of common factitious glass, is certainly not equal to it: it is not, however, so much inferior as this naturalist seems to suppose. A scale three lines and a half in thickness being presented to the flame of a candle, afforded, in part, a passage to the light; and another, two lines thick, being interposed between the eye and external objects, permitted a confused sight of them. Another, half a line in thickness, being laid on a book, it might be read with the greatest distinctness. I *have* entered into these minute details the better to show the perfect quality of this glass.

Colour.

"The opacity of this glass in the mass proceeds from a very subtile, and perhaps bituminous substance, incorporated with the vitreous matter, and rendering it dark like a cloud. The glass loses this substance if it be left for some hours re-melted in the crucible, and it then becomes white."

"Bergman observed that the Islandic glass, when exposed to the fire, melts with difficulty, without the addition of some other substance as a flux. In this it differs from the present of Lipari, which soon begins to soften in the furnace, and in a few hours undergoes a complete fusion.

" This kind of glass, however, is not the most common to be met with on the Monte della Castagna. It is found only in a few places, scattered in large but solitary masses; nor can I pretend to say whether these are remains of currents, or whether they were thrown out by the burning gulfs.

Mixed.

" It happens to this glass as to the different kinds of precious stones, that is, the same piece is not always throughout of equal purity and value; for on breaking some of these masses we sometimes find one portion very pure glass, such as has been already described, and the other imperfect; either because the fusion has not been general, the substance containing bodies foreign to the base, or because that base is rather an enamel than vitreous. These bodies are felspars, but of a new appearance. Nothing is more common than to find felspars in lavas, and sometimes even in enamels and glasses; of which we have frequent examples in this work, as well as in the accounts of other writers: but

Felspars.

these felspars are always inserted immediately into these substances without any intervening body. Here, however, the case is different; every felspar is surrounded with a rind or coating, which, when it is extracted entire from the enamel, appears to be a vitreous globule, about one or two lines in diameter, of a clear cinereous colour. If we break this globule, we find within it the half-fused felspar, not divested of its coating, but forming one body with it. These globules are very numerous, and sometimes by their confluence form groups; and they are very distinctly visible, on account of the black colour of the enamel.

Coating. " The manner in which this coating was formed around the felspars, I conceive to be as follows: when the enamel was fluid, and enclosed the felspars, it acted as a flux to their external parts, and combined with them; and from this combination was the rind or coating produced, while the internal part of the felspars had only undergone a semifusion, because it was not in immediate contact with the enamel. There can be little doubt but that the felspars likewise existed in the perfect glass; but the heat probably being more active in that than in the enamel, they were completely dissolved, and the entire mass reduced to one similar consistence. As a proof of this conjecture the furnace produced a complete homogeneity of parts in the enamel containing these extraneous globules.

"6. When treating of the rocks of the castle of Lipari, I said they were formed of a cinereous lava of a felspar base, which in many places has passed into glass. I likewise remarked that the lava, as well as the large pieces of glass, was filled with globules apparently not dissimilar to the base. At the beginning of the Monte della Castagna, not far from a cottage, the habitation of one of the labourers who dig pumice, there is a current of similar glass that falls into the sea in several branches, and which I shall here consider as the sixth species. This glass, however, has a more fine and shining grain, and its fracture is exactly such as we observe in glass, yet in beauty it is little inferior to the fifth kind; and if whiteness, or more properly the want of colour, is particularly valuable in volcanic glasses (since those which have this quality are extremely rare), this certainly has considerable claim to our attention: not that it is entirely colourless, as it contains a kind of obscure cloud, which gives it, when viewed in the mass, a blackish hue, but at the edges it appears white. The round cinereous bodies with which it is filled form the most pleasing and conspicuous

Current of glass.

contrast, and render the glass irregularly spotted. I have large pieces of the fifth sort cut and polished: their colour, which is that of pitch, gives them a peculiar beauty. The blackest and choicest marbles of Varena and Veronese far inferior to them in fineness of grain and lustre; yet, from their uniformity of colouring they are less beautiful than this spotted glass, which has received a delicate polish from the hand of the artist. On the shore, where the torrent falls into the sea, we find pieces of all sizes, rounded and smoothed by the continual agitation of the sea: I have met with more than one of half a foot and a foot in diameter. Notwithstanding the powerful action of the waves, which have beaten on them for so long a time, their internal parts are not injured; and, when cut and polished, they present surfaces very beautiful to the eye. Tablets of this kind of glass (and there is no want of pieces of a proper size to form them) would add much to the grandeur and splendour of any sumptuous gallery.

Origin. "But disregarding the beauty which delights the eye, let us proceed to objects that attract and interest the curiosity of the philosophical inquirer. We shall find that the cinereous bodies included in this glass are only points of lava with a felspar base; and on examining in va-places the current of this glass, we shall eive that it is a continuation of the same with the felspar base, of which these orbi- corpuscles are composed; whence we shall hesitate to conclude, that from this stone the lava and the glass derive their origin, that we find small particles of lava scattered ugh the latter, because it has not undergone plete fusion; whence we find some pieces posed partly of glass and partly of this same . In some of these pieces we discover small les, or thin filaments of an extremely brilliant transparent glass, resembling in miniature husk of the chesnut.

7. Though this glass in many particulars mbles the last species, it yet differs from it thers. It is perfect, like that, but it is of a er colour. In it, likewise, the small glo- s abound, but they are earthy and pulveris- ; every one is detached in its distinct niche, t most is only fastened to it by a few points. The description of this seventh species of s will render that of several others unneces- , since the glasses I should have to describe tain a greater or less number of similar glo- s, differing only in the nature of the base losing them, which in some is more, and in rs less vitreous. I shall only make one ob-

Filaments.

servation, which I think to be of some importance, relative to the glasses I here omit. Several of them have, even in their internal parts, fissures frequently an inch in breadth, and three inches in length. These are not entirely vacuities, but are frequently crossed by small threads of glass, connected at their two extremities with the sides. The broadest of these threads are four lines in breadth, and the narrowest scarcely a line. When broken they have the fragility of glass, and are found to be a most perfect glass, being colourless, and extremely transparent. It is easy to conceive that these threads have been formed in the same manner with those of the capillary glass, found in similar fissures in the third species of glass.

Unctuous.

" 8. The eighth and last kind of the vitrifications of the Monte della Castagna may be denominated an enamel, that has the colour and lustre of asphaltum, of a scaly grain, a very small degree of transparency in the points of the fractures, and of considerable weight and compactness, though it is extremely friable. It is found in solitary masses, not very numerous, and the broken pieces have the property of assuming a globose form. Some of these globes resemble those found by M. Dolomieu in the island of Ponza. I have been favoured with two

ie latter by the Abbé Fortis; but I find that,
pting their globose figure, they differ in
y respect from those of which I now speak.
globes of Ponza are composed of leaves
leaves of an imperfect enamel, do not give
ks with steel, and contain felspars and mi-
whereas those of the Monte della Castagna
ly include a few felspars, give sparks with
l, have a vitreous appearance, and are not
posed of plates or leaves.

Some pieces of this enamel, broken and de-
ed from the masses, are in one part true
nel, and in another lava. The latter gives a
sparks with steel, has a grain approaching
rthy, and, as far as I could discover, has for
ase a soft horn-stone, from which conse-
ntly the enamel likewise derives its origin.

These are the principal vitrifications I ob-
d in my excursions to the Monte della Cas-
a. Some I have omitted to notice, since,
e trifling differences excepted, they are es-
ially the same with those described. It is
er, however, to remark, that more than one
em exhibits manifest signs of having once
ed down the sides of the mountain, in the Currents.
k threads and vitreous filaments they con-
similar to those we see, on a lesser scale,
lass fused in our furnaces, when it comes

into contact with the cold air, as it flows down an inclined plane.

Melt in the furnace.

"Every one of these eight kinds of glasses and enamels may be completely remelted in the furnace. When speaking of the compact glass of the rock of the castle of Lipari, I remarked its extraordinary inflation in the furnace, and said that this tumefaction usually accompanies a refusion, in our fires, of solid glasses and volcanic enamels. I then had in view those of the Monte della Castagna, five of which, though compact and solid, in the furnace swelled high above the edges; notwithstanding that, before their refusion, they only filled a third part of it."

These ample descriptions may serve to show the precise nature of volcanic glasses, which some have confounded with the aqueous productions.

The obsidians, or volcanic glasses, and amels, may be arranged in the following order.

HYPONOME I. VITREOUS.

Diversities.

This can scarcely be distinguished from glass. The general colour is black, whence it forms excellent mirrors for landscapes: it sometimes presents white spots, which are decayed crystals of felspar, whence the base is supposed to be a vitrified trap or basaltin. The white fibrous veins sometimes observable seem also to be of felspar, which when heated assumes a fibrous form.

But obsidian also occurs of other colours, such as bluish, dark green, yellowish, and grey; nay, Troil says that in Iceland it is sometimes found colourless, like crystal. Dolomieu mentions a yellow vitreous lava, with black mica and white quartz, somewhat resembling pitch-stone, and which seems a granite in a particular period of fusion. In the eruption of Etna, 1787, a vitreous lava appeared, interspersed with particles of talc*.

The volcanoes of New Spain sometimes present a beautiful obsidian, in which a spangled light plays upon a brown base, with an effect resembling aventurine.

Micronome 1. Entire. Common black obsidian, from Iceland, commonly called Icelandic agate.

The same, from Peru, *piedra de Galinazzo.*

Bluish obsidian, from Iceland, Teneriffe, &c.

Yellowish, from Lipari.

Crystalline, from Iceland.

Refulgent, from New Spain.

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* Dolomieu Ponces, 93, Etna, 509.

HYPONOME II. PORPHYRITIC.

This kind, spotted with decayed crystals of felspar, may be found in most of the preceding *sites*.

Faujas gives the following examples.

" Obsidian, with crystals of white felspar, which have preserved their form and colour, and which are rather *frits* than melted.

" Obsidian of a very sharp fracture, with a number of little round and oblong globules of a dull white substance, which resembles amel, and which may proceed from a granular felspar, spread in great abundance in the paste of the stony substance which has given birth to that beautiful black glass, spotted with white. The paste of this obsidian should be fusible; for the glass which results from it is pure, and although it appears of a deep black in contrast with the white spots, it is of a fine transparency on the edges, and rather white than black, but of a smoky white: found at Lipari. Some specimens of this volcanic glass are seen in which the same white substance, instead of being disseminated in the mass, is disposed in small layers, very thin, of the thickness of half a line or a line at most, which alternate with layers of glass, very black and shining, of four, five, or six lines in thickness. This beauti-

glass was discovered at Lipari by Spallan-
.

Black volcanic glass, rather porous, enamelled
1 reticular lines of white felspar, which every
re penetrate it, and cross each other in differ-
directions: the black part is melted, the fel-
r is only a frit.

' On the summit of Mont Meisner, in Hessia,
found isolated blocks, of a large bulk, of this
ny substance, whose base is incontestably vitri-
l; while the felspar has undergone but a slight
ration. There is nothing extraordinary in this
t, since the obsidians of Lipari not only afford
a similar example, but also show us the felspar
ts state of crystallisation.

" It is nevertheless proper to observe, that the
stallised felspar, in the obsidian of Lipari and
er places, is an indication that this obsidian
es its origin to a porphyritic rock, whose base
uld be a trap, or a paste of felspar in mass;
ile the reticular felspar of the volcanic glass of
nt Meisner seems to differ in its origin, and to
e had a base different from porphyries.

" The disposition of this felspar, interwoven in
vitreous black substance, recalled to my recol-
tion some stones which are not volcanic, of a
nilar texture, which I possess in my collection
rocks. I carefully examined them, and I per-

ceived their analogy. These last are composed of a white filaceous felspar, which intersects small black and shining crystals of tourmaline."

HYPONOME III. WITH WHITE FIBROUS VEINS.

This kind is also found in the Italian volcanoes, but the most beautiful is from New Spain.

HYPONOME IV. CAPILLARY.

It appears, from Dolomieu's account of Etna, that this kind sometimes appears in the large vesicles of vitreous lava: but that of the Isle of Bourbon, above described, is singularly curious.

HYPONOME V. GRANULAR.

Patrin, as above quoted, has described a hill of vitreous sand.

There yet remain two important distinctions of vitreous lava.

HYPONOME VI. RESINOUS.

These have somewhat the appearance of pitchstone, and Icelandic obsidian sometimes assumes this visage*. They are by many, not improperly, classed in the next division.

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* The untranslatable Latin *facies* is more expressive.

The remarkable isle of Pentellaria, between Sicily and Africa (the ancient Cossura, of which there are coins), produces a black obsidian of so unctuous an aspect that Ferrara compares it to the bitumen of Chaldea. It is perfectly opake, even in the thin edges; and has numerous crystals and quadrilateral plates of felspar in perfect preservation, except that it has a dry aspect, and is *stunned* in some parts. The pieces more free from felspar are extremely hard, with a conchoidal and often a striated fracture like common glass. When rubbed they yield a powerful smell of burnt hair*.

HYPONOME VII. VOLCANIC AMELS.

Description by Faujas.

Faujas, in his classification of volcanic products, has so amply treated this curious subject, that his account deserves to be translated, for the benefit of the English reader†.

" When compact lavas, either prismatic or amorphous, are fused in a crucible in the furnace of a glass-house, without the addition of any flux or dissolvent, a fine and shining glass, of the most beautiful black, is obtained in a few hours. When it is in a mass, this glass is very opake; but in breaking and reducing it into thin plates, it is found to be transparent, but a little coloured by a fuliginous substance.

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* Ferr. 258; *odore di capelli bruciati.* Would this express the undefinable smell of quartz?

† *Annales du Museum:* but much altered and greatly enlarged in the second volume of his *Essai de Geologie,* Paris, 1809, 8vo. At first there were seven, but now twelve, classes, injudiciously chosen and arranged from trifling objects and circumstances; while some important substances are omitted. But there are many novelties, and ingenious observations, as usual, in the works of Faujas.

The former edition is preferred, for the reason already assigned.

"If the substance submitted to this experiment is derived from a trap, the glass is then of a greenish colour, and is much more transparent on the edges. It may even be refined by the assistance of soda, so as to form a fine bottle glass; which does not happen when basaltic lava is used instead of trap; for, in the latter instance, the substance cannot be blown but with difficulty, and without success: and the glass is neither good nor transparent. I know the contrary has been asserted in a work on chemistry; but experiments that I made in the presence of well-informed men, in 1784, in the glass-house of Sevres, near Meudon, and of which I have preserved the minutes, demonstrate that basaltic lava used alone, can in no instance make bottles: that it is neither improved by soda nor potash, but other substances must be added to it.

"The theory of volcanic glasses, obsidians, and amels, needs not be sought elsewhere. If I distinguish amels from other vitreous productions, [illegible] duced by subterranean fires, this difference only relates to a greater opacity, and a more unctuous and resinous aspect which amels possess; while the glasses, of whatever colour, have a brighter lustre, are more crystalline, and seem better melted.

"Real pitchstones, whatever may be their colour and their vitreous appearance, must not be confounded with glasses and amels: they are foreign to them.

Amels.

"1. Grey amel, with shades of a grey white, rather greenish, with a fracture rather stony than vitreous. Its contexture, and the vesicles seen in its paste, leave no doubt of its being a volcanic amel. In observing it with a lens, crystals of felspar, which characterise its porphyritic origin, are even perceived. This variety comes from Ascension Island, where it was collected by M. de Berth, an able mineralogist, who has some fine collections of lavas from the isles of Bourbon and France.

"2. A yellowish grey amel, rather reddish, with a resinous fracture. If I may be allowed to use the expression, it is what Dolomieu has called *resiniform lava*. Its grain, its fracture, its semi-vitreous paste, all indicate its being an amel; and the crystals of felspar, distinguished on polished faces, announce that this amel owes its origin to a porphyry with a base of felspar. It is found at Lipari.

"3. Reddish grey amel, opake, with a stony fracture, having some relation to what the German mineralogists call *porzellan jaspis;* but it is incontestably an amel, since the greater part of the specimens found at Lipari are perforated with pores, and in some parts vitrified; whereas jaspers are infusible.

"4. A bluish grey amel, with a shining fracture and an homogenous paste.

"5. A greenish amel, opake, shining, fracture vitreous with crystals of white felspar. When these amels are cut and polished, the crystals are better observed. In this class I place the vitreous amel of Puy Gryou, in Auvergne, formed in a large current covered with lavas. M. de la Coste, professor of the central school of Puy de Dome, first pointed out this amel.

"6. An olive-green amel, of an homogenous paste, and with a fracture of pitchstone, of Monte Galda in the Vicentin.

"7. An amel, of a homogenous paste, with pitchstone fracture, of a pale black, with very fine and undulating zones of a smoky grey, from Ascension Island.

"8. Vitreous amel, of a coal black or obsidian, fracture irregularly conchoidal. I give the name

f obsidian to black volcanic glasses*, whatever
ay be their opacity and their brilliancy, more or
ss unctuous, or their paste more or less vitreous,
ovided that their transparency is visible on their
lges in the thinnest fractures of these glasses.
he preceding number forms the transition of
ack amel to the obsidian of the Ascension Island,
Teneriffe, of Stromboli, Vulcano, &c."

NOME VII. VOLCANIC INTRITE.

This denomination, as in the other divisions,
cludes those substances which, on a base, pre-
nt crystals of various natures; and which have
ence often been vaguely styled porphyries.
eal porphyritic lava has already been consi-
ered, under the Nome Compact Lava; being
e of the most common appearances of that
nd, and scarcely distinguishable from genuine
rphyry, with a base of basaltin and crystals of
lspar.

The most remarkable and singular volcanic
trite is that with leucite, a crystal resembling With leucite.
white garnet, and at first so named, which
ems peculiar to the lavas of Vesuvius, and of

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* Obsidian may be of several colours, as already mentioned.

extinct volcanoes in the Campania of Rome. Breislak, an eminent mineralogist, has minutely discussed the leucite, in his interesting travels in those parts of Italy: and as the nature of his work rather precludes any hope of its being translated, his accounts of the summit of Vesuvius, and of the noted eruption of 1794, which are more scientific than any other descriptions, shall be here given; after premising that Vesuvius forms, as it were, a part of a larger mountain, called Somma, which, in a semicircular form, includes on the north the summit of this celebrated volcano.

reislak's de- cription of Vesuvius.

Cone.

"The present cone of Vesuvius is truncated, so as to form an inclined plane, sloping from the north east to the south-west. The circumference of the summit, which forms the brim of the cauldron, is about 3000 feet; and at the bottom is distinguished an oblong plain, the greatest diameter of which is from east to west. Having since ascended several times to the top of the cone, I perceived that its depth had gradually diminished, and that the bottom of the crater became higher daily, owing to the different matter which falls down, especially from the almost perpendicular sides on the east and north. One may at this time easily scan the extent and depth of its mouth; but occasionally it is much encumbered, and sometimes totally clogged. In 1755, the bottom of the funnel rose so considerably that it presented a vast plain, only 23 feet beneath the brim; and in the midst of this plain was another cone, from 80 to 90 feet high, with a small crater from which the eruptions proceeded.

State of crater, 1631.

" Braccini has left us a curious description of the state of the crater of Vesuvius, after a long state of rest, and before the grand eruption of 1631. The whole of it, or at least its greater part, had become accessible. Having himself descended into the crater, he says he found it covered with plants and trees, and that a road down it was practicable for the space of a mile; that at this depth a very deep cavern was seen, which having passed, the way was again open for two miles, by a very steep, but at the same time very safe road, owing to the trees growing near to each other. At length a large plain presented itself, surrounded by a number of grottoes and caverns, which might be entered, but which the party were deterred from, on account of their darkness. This plain, which was not accessible otherwise than by a very rapid slope nearly three miles in length, must, assuredly, have been much beneath the level of the sea[*]. Had the grottoes then been visited, what a fund of knowledge might not have been acquired!

Vapours.

"When the volcano is at rest, vapours are seen to arise from the cauldron's brim, or from the interior of its sides, which are very perceptible. It would be difficult to conceive it possible that they should proceed from the internal furnace; that they should, by tortuous and hidden conduits, penetrate from such a profound depth to the summit of the cone: for all confined vapour seeks for liberation by the shortest road; and, consequently, were these derived from a source so low, they would issue from the bottom of the cauldron, which presents them an easier passage with a smaller mass of matter to trase. It is therefore probable that these fumes the production of substances, in the neigh- ırhood of the brim of the crater, in a state of omposition.

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[*] "If the angle of descent, during the distance of the three miles, was 60° from vertical, or 30° from an horizontal line, the perpendicular depth, by a plain trigonometrical problem, will be found to have been 7920 feet; if, however, the steepness of the declivity be reduced to form an angle of no more than 22½°, the perpendicular depth will yet have been 6060 feet; and, as the height of Vesuvius, according to our author (tome ii. p. 43), is only 3922 English feet, allowing the statement of the length of the descent to the plain, as stated by Braccini, to have been correct, viz. three English miles, or 5280 yards, that plain must have been at least 2000 feet below the level of the sea, even with a slope of descent of only 22½°; but if a slope of 30° be allowed, it will have been 4000 English feet below the level of the sea! TRANSL."

' When the mouth of Vesuvius is observed n any distance, and during the prevalence of isture in the atmosphere, a mass of vapour ms to rise from it which mingles with the uds. Entirely distinct from any volcanic ıse, these are only the humid vapours in the air, racted by the conical shape of the mountain, l imprisoned in the vast cavity of the caul- n. Vapours which spring from, or are dif- ed over a plain, are dissipated by the air and ıds; but when enclosed, they are much less dily dispersed.

Somma.

' The western portion of Somma must be con- ered as connected with the cone of Vesuvius, a hill of smaller eminence, denominated ate *Cantaroni*, on which is the hermitage *del vatore*. This hill is intersected by three val- s that deserve to be examined with attention, account of the quantity of primitive sub- ıces which the volcano has thrown thither, ing old eruptions. The northern valley is t termed *La Fossa di Pharaone* near the plain, l *Vallone della Vetrana* in its more elevated t, where the current of lava flowed in 1785.

Valleys.

This vale, hollowed by rains, is the only interval between Mount Somma and Mount Cantaroni. South of this vale are two others nearly parallel, the first called *Rio Cupo;* the second *Fossa Grande,* which taking a direction from east to west, merges in the plain of Saint Jorio. Its northern side, nearly perpendicular, rises to a considerable height above the valley, and being composed only of lapillo*, pumice, and other substances of an inadhesive quality, is subject frequently to crumble and fall in large quantities. Along the whole extent of the southern side, at its upper part, is seen an ancient current of lava, which at first sight appears to be several strata of lava imposed one on the other, but which a little attention shows is but one current, in which horizontal chasms have been occasioned by refrigeration, and into which the wind has since introduced a slight quantity of vegetable earth. This lava is hard and compact; it contains but few fragments of augite or pyroxene, and seems to be an assemblage of leucites, the superficial crystalline lustre of which, having been impaired by decomposition, makes it resemble variolite in its exterior. Many detached masses of this current have fallen to the bottom of the valley. Each fall of matter brings down calcareous stones, mica, mixtures of felspar, and idocrases. The lava of 1767, which threatened the villages of La Barra and Saint Jorio, discharged itself into this valley, which it filled to a certain height, and afterwards flowed, spreading itself, to the plain. As it is already covered by the crumblings from the flank, in order to examine it the inquirer must repair to the plain of Saint Jorio, in the neighbourhood of the chapel of Saint Vito. Its grain is crystallised but ine, and oftentimes so close and compact as to be nearly equal to petro-silex. It contains many mall crystals of pyroxene, and fragments of eucite, which is rarely found in its perfect form f crystallisation . . . .

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* "This is the denomination given to fragments of pumice, the largest of which are from six to eight millimeters (a quarter to a third of an inch) in thickness. It is of this *lapillo,* saturated with lime-water and well beaten, that the floors and terraces of the houses are made at Naples. It is spread in a uniform manner about five or six inches deep, and by beating is reduced to the thickness of two to two and a half inches. It then becomes a body of sufficient solidity to be impervious to water, and so hard as to bear being hewn like tufo."

Lava of leucites.

"The lava of La Scala passes beneath the garen of La Favorita. It is of the colour of ashes, whitish, and of a crystallised grain. It contains many crystals of pyroxene, few of leucite, and mall pieces of felspar, in groups in its cavities. This lava, where it is hewn on the sea-shore near

Lava of La Scala.

In strata.

Prisms.

La Cavalleria, is worthy of attention. Under a uniform bed, from 15 to 20 feet in thickness, the lava is found divided into strata of from three to four feet: these divisions are formed by parallel and horizontal lines, and where these are dug down to, the lava is found to have separated itself spontaneously into beds. Below them are large prisms, commonly hexagonal, which are disjoined with great ease: in some places these prisms, instead of the lower are found in the upper part of the current. Some of these large prisms I have seen, the summit of which was parted into a number of small prisms. These observations sufficiently demonstrate that the recession of the matter of the lava, when in the act of cooling, is the sole cause of the form, whether even or prismatic, which it assumes; and that this cause is capable of giving to lava the appearance of stratification. This phenomenon may afford ground for reflection to those geologists who so strongly insist on the fact of horizontal and vertical beds of granite, as affording a proof of deposits being first made in a fluid, and afterwards diverted from their pristine position. I am far from inclining as yet to adopt any geological system whatever; for, in my opinion, we have not hitherto collected a sufficient number of facts to produce one that will bear the test of reason. I merely give my observations, with the reflections they suggest. Geologists are not yet of one opinion respecting the stratification of granite, although it appears to be clearly demonstrated by the observations of Saussure. Admitting, however, the truth of the problem, solid reasons may thence be deduced for believing that the circumstance is more indebted for its existence to a state of aqueous than to one of igneous fluidity: here, however, is a current of hard and compact lava, which most assuredly has undergone a state of igneous fluidity, and to which refrigeration has given an horizontal stratification. It may be objected, that granite forms chains of immense mountains, and that this is but a small current, scarcely a few yards thick; but the phenomenon is the same: the difference between great and little, however material with us, being nothing with nature.

" The same tendency to a basaltic conformation, which is noticed in the lava of La Scala, is observed again in the neighbouring current of Calastro. This, after passing through a defile Of Calastro. below Vallelonga, spreads to a broad front on reaching the sea. What most deserves observation in the lava here, are the small crystallisations it presents, which seem to be the olivine of Werner. It is, moreover, of a deeper colour than the lava of Scala, more porous, and like that contains many crystals of augite, and fragments of felspar. On an excursion to the gulf of Salerno, the sand of its shore, and more especially that of the coast of Amalfi, presented similar crystals in abundance, as well as augites, both substances indigenous of this country, whither it is unlikely they should have been transported from Vesuvius. A rock of a similar kind also may possibly have supplied that volcano with them on one of its eruptions.

Lava of 1794.

" Next to this lava is found that of the eruption of 1794. Of the different eruptions of Vesuvius this is the most recent, and was one of the most considerable. Having had occasion to observe it myself, and trace it with attention, it possibly will not be displeasing to my readers that I should present them with a description of it in this place.

Account of the eruption.

" Vesuvius had continued tranquil for a long time. On the 12th June, 1794, towards eleven in the evening, a very violent shock of an earthquake was felt, which induced many of the inhabitants of Naples to leave their houses for the night. The tranquillity of the mountain did not however appear to be disturbed either on the 13th, 14th, or 15th, nor did it exhibit any

Shocks.

Issue of lava.

symptom of an approaching eruption; but, towards nine in the evening of the last day, many symptoms were manifested. The houses about the mountain experienced violent shocks, which gradually increased in force; a very powerful one was felt at ten o'clock in Naples and its environs. At this instant, on the western base of the cone, at the spot called *La Pedamentina*, and from the midst of ancient torrents, a new mouth disgorged a stream of lava. This opening was 2375 feet in length, and 237 in breadth. Scarcely had the stream of lava begun to flow, before four conical hills, each having its small crater (the third alone excepted, which had two distinct mouths), arose out of the stream itself. From these different mouths stones were darted into the air with great noise, and in a state so highly ignited that they resembled real flames; the explosions indeed were so quickly repeated that they seemed but one, and formed a continued sheet of fire in the air, which received no other interruption than what was occasioned by the inferiority of the force of some of the ejections. They sometimes vomited substances, I may say, in a fluid state, for they expanded in the air like a soft paste, so that one may imagine they were either a part of the running lava, or masses of old lava fused and projected. Some of these hills were contiguous one to the other, and it seems as if the force by which they were produced had met with obstruction to the disgorgement of the substances at one point, and consequently effected several issues in the same line. The lava flowed in one body for some time, and at intervals flashes of light arose from the surface of it, produced by jets of hydrogenous gas, which disengaged itself from the lava precisely in the same manner as the gases expanded from the surface of a fluid. Its first direction was towards Portici and Resina, so that the inhabitants of Torre del Greco already bewailed the fate of their neighbours, and began their thanksgivings to the Almighty for their escape. Collected together in the church, they were still singing hymns of joy, and expressing their gratitude, when a voice announced to them the fatal news of their altered destiny. The stream of lava, on flowing down a declivity it met in its way, divided itself into three branches; one bearing towards Sta Maria de Pugliano traversed a space of 2063 feet; another, directing its course towards Resina, flowed to the distance of 3181 feet; while the remainder of the stream, falling into the valley of Malomo, flowed towards La Torre. On reaching the chapel of Balzano it formed a branch towards the south-east, which

Direction.

terminated in the territory of Aniello Tirone, after having run the length of 1490 feet; the residue of the lava, pursuing its course, flowed upon Torre, presenting a front from twelve to fifteen hundred feet in breadth, and filling several deep ravines.

Destroys Torre del Greco.

“ On reaching the first houses of the town the stream divided, according to the different slopes of the streets, and the degrees of opposition presented by the buildings. An idea may easily be formed of the accidents consequent on such a flood of fire; accidents which bear relation to the site of the manufactories, the thickness of their walls, and the manner in which they were assailed by the lava. Had not the mass of the stream suffered a diminution, from the different divergencies noticed, not a single house would have been left standing in Torre del Greco. The lava, after a serpentine course through the town, at length reached the seashore. The contact with the water diminished the speed of its course: still the current flowed into the sea in a body 1127 feet in breadth, and advanced into it a distance of 362 feet. Its entrance into the sea was not marked by any singular phenomenon; it began to issue from the volcano at ten at night, and reached the seashore by four in the morning; continuing a

Entrance into the sea.

very slow progressive movement into the sea throughout the whole of the 16th, and the following night. It was conceived that the sudden cooling of the lava in the sea would have produced a basaltic construction; but it became firm without assuming any regular form, an effect which possibly is to be ascribed to the heap of drosses with which it abounded*. The main stream, from the point where it issued from the volcano to that at which it stopped in the sea, measured 12,961 feet. Its breadth varied greatly; in some places it scarcely exceeded 322 feet, but in the plain it spread to 1111; and at a medium, without risk of any great error, it may be computed to have been 725 feet broad. In thickness also it differed according to the depth of the hollows it filled: in the plain it was constantly from twenty-four to thirty-two feet thick; and if its mean thickness be reckoned at the latter number of feet, it may possibly be nearest the truth. According to these data the mass of molten matter is *1,869,627 cubic fathoms.*

Convulsions. During the eruption the convulsion of the mountain was so great that even the houses in Naples were shaken by it. Still it was not constantly alike. At the beginning the trembling was continual, and accompanied by a hollow noise, similar to that occasioned by a river falling into a subterranean cavern. The lava at the time of its being disgorged, from the impetuous and uninterrupted manner in which it was ejected, by striking against the walls of the vent, occasioned a continual oscillation of the mountain. Towards the middle of the night this vibratory motion ceased, and was succeeded by distinct and repeated shocks. The fluid mass, diminished in quantity, now pressed less violently against the walls of the aperture, and no longer issued in a continual and gushing stream, but only at intervals, when the interior fermentation elevated the boiling matter above the mouth. About four in the morning the shocks began to be less numerous, and the intervals between them rendered their force and duration more perceptible. One might compare them to the thunder heard in Italy during storms in summer, the loudest claps of which are succeeded by rumbling sounds which gradually die away.

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* The explanations of Ferrara are better. P.

"While I was making my observations on this grand eruption at the foot of Vesuvius, its summit was tranquil, and no phenomena were visible about its crater. I passed the night at sea, between Calastro and La Torre, to have a nearer view of this great operation of nature, Sublimity of the scene.

and to prove the truth of the opinion generally received, that great eruptions are accompanied by extraordinary phenomena in the sea. A more grand spectacle there could not be. On one of those serene and brilliant nights, known only in the delightful climate of Naples, a majestic stream of fire, 11,868 feet in length and 1483 in breadth, was seen at the foot of Vesuvius. Its reflected surface formed in the atmosphere a broad and brilliant aurora borealis regularly spread, and terminated at its upper part by a thick and dark border of smoke, which, dilating itself in the air, covered the disk of the moon, the shining silvery light of which was enfeebled and obscured. The sea again reflected the illuminated sky, the surface of it corresponding with this portion of the atmosphere appearing red as fire. At the source of this river of fire inflamed matter was incessantly spouted out to a prodigious elevation, which, as it diverged on all sides, resembled an immense firework: on the sea-shore, finally, the mournful spectacle of the conflagration of La Torre completed the picture. The vast clouds of thick black smoke which rose from the town, the flames which occasionally crowned the summits of the houses, the ruins of the buildings, the noise of the falling palaces and houses, the rumbling of the volcano, these were the principal incidents of this horrible yet sublime scene. The ruins of Pompeia, buried beneath heaps of drosses and powders, did not certainly present a spectacle near so striking. To these objects, so powerfully calculated to fix the senses, was added another which forcibly touched the heart; this was a doleful group of fifteen thousand persons, bewailing the destruction of their city and property, who had had but a moment's notice to flee, and abandon their homes for ever; and were reduced to become wanderers, and dependent on the world for refuge.

Cloud of powders.

" About dawn the summit of Vesuvius ceased to be visible; it was covered with a thick cloud, frequently furrowed with lightning. This cloud gradually spread itself, and in a little time overshadowed the gulf, the city of Naples, and its vicinage. It was formed of a large quantity of that fine sand called *ashes*, and prevented all sight of the fire of the volcano. The sun, as it appeared above the horizon, presented a still more dismal picture. From the abundance of ashes in the air it seemed more pale than during the strongest eclipse, and a black scarf appeared to be spread over the whole of the gulf and the country. At the extremity of the horizon, towards the west, the day was more clear, while the light at Naples was fainter than twilight; and with Pliny the younger one might have said "*Jam dies alibi, illic nox omnibus nigrior densiorque.*"

Sea calm.

"During this mournful night the air was perfectly unagitated, and the sea calm: it was not disturbed even in the slightest degree, at least in the gulf of Naples. The slightest action of the volcano on it would have been perceptible at the base of the mountain, and I was within a distinct view of this part of the sea; but its influence on that element was absolutely null.

Another current.

"While one current of lava flowed over the western flank of Vesuvius, spreading ruin and desolation, another fell down its eastern slope, from an opening at an inferior height, and a greater distance from the summit. This current was not visible at Naples; all that was perceived of it was a great light in the atmosphere, produced by reflection from the rolling fire. At first it took an eastern direction, turned afterwards to the south, and descended to the spot called *Cognolo;* there it fortunately found the valley of Sorienta, 65 feet wide, 121 deep, and 1627 feet long. This valley the lava filled; but as the volcano still continued to emit fresh matter, the current afterwards spread into the plain of Forte, near to Pozzelle, where it divided into three branches: one proceeded towards Bosco, another towards Mauro, and the third to the plain of Mulara. The length of this current of lava was not less than an Italian mile; but as it flowed constantly over old lavas it did but little harm, merely laying waste and occupying a small extent of vineyard. From the spot where it diverged from its first direction it projected a small branch in a continued line: falling to this point over a very rapid slope, the speed with which it flowed must have been considerable; and a portion of its mass preserving its first impulse, naturally fell in this small stream, in which were four mouths in the shape of an inverted cone, the base of which is in the surface of the lava. This stream terminates in a small and regular hill, of a conical figure, on the summit of which are two mouths, in form of inverted cones. The dimensions of this second current are nearly half those of the first; consequently the mass of the whole is adequate to *2,804,440 cubic fathoms*. The coincidence and perfect resemblance of these two currents of lava sufficiently prove that they had but one common origin, and but one cauldron in which the matter was fused of which they are composed. How great then must be the recipient in which such an enormous mass could be contained!

Vast force required.

And what powerful exertion of strength must have been required to break through the mountain in these two opposite directions! The lava, agitated by the expansion of elastic fluids, made its first effort to liberate itself on the eastern flank, and found a passage; but the resistance it met with from the mountain, no doubt occasioned its reflux, or rebound, against the opposite flank. The western current, taking its departure from a more elevated mouth, more quickly terminated its course; but the cauldron chiefly emptied itself by the eastern opening. The lava issued from it very slowly, compared with the celerity with which that flowed which proceeded from the eastern mouth, because it was no longer driven forward nor compressed by the total mass, which was already greatly diminished.

Attendant phenomena.

"On the morning of the 16th the lava ceased to flow over the western side, and the mouth of the volcano began to resume activity. The whole of its cone was covered with a very thick rain of ashes or powders, which totally hid it from sight, so that nothing could be distinguished on Vesuvius, which was wholly inaccessible. In this state it continued four days, during which many shocks of earthquakes were felt, and loud claps of thunder were heard. Thunders raged in every part of the adjacent country, and the

Thunder and lightning.

ashes of lightning by which they were accompanied, at intervals for an instant, allowed a view f the mountain, through the darkness in which was involved by the rain of powders. This arkness was so prodigiously great, that at Caserta nd other places, ten or twelve miles from Vesuius, it was impossible to walk the streets at id-day without torches, and that circumstance as renewed which is related by Pliny on the ccasion of the eruption in the time of Titus, *fxes multæ, variaque lumina, solvebant obscuritem.*" It is utterly impossible to determine ith precision the quantity of ashes or powders at fell in the course of these days, as it was fferent in different places, according to the diction of the wind; it is however computed, on e base of observations at different places, that urteen inches and six lines in depth fell on an ea, the radius of which is three miles, the sumit of Vesuvius being the centre.

Darkness.

"It would be erroneous to conclude that all is mass of matter proceeded from the entrails f the mountain; the greater part was the offoring of the ruins of the crater, which during ese last days fell into the abyss below. A rain ashes, when continued for any length of time, very injurious to vegetation. Lands which, few days before, presented the most smiling

Ruin of the crater.

aspect, and were enriched with every kind of fruit, assumed a similar appearance to what would have been occasioned by the sharpest winter. Happily hope, looking forward to the future, found consolation; for these ashes are excellent compost: and though the husbandman lamented the destruction of the fruits and the vintage of the year, he already reckoned for recompense in the promised abundance of succeeding seasons. As these ashes contain no element injurious to vegetation, their bad effects are purely of a mechanical nature. Mingled with rain water, as is their condition on an eruption, they form a paste which, collected on vegetables in great abundance, destroys by its weight their more tender organs, and bends down their branches, which either sink or break under the weight, according to the nature of their fibres. They moreover form, especially on leaves and fruit, a crust which absorbs a greater degree of caloric than them, and retains it a longer time, thus preventing the transpiration of the plant, and destroying its economy.

Powders fertile.

"I merely use the word *ashes* to accommodate myself to the general custom. The impropriety of the term is evident, as the substance has not the slightest affinity to the ashes of vegetables. It will therefore be better for the

Term *ashes* improper.

future to distinguish it by the name of *volcanic sand*, one which already begins to be common. On examining it with the microscope, this substance is seen to be composed of particles of a rough and earthy appearance, mingled with triturated fragments of felspar and augite. All are not alike, some being of large and others of smaller size. The grains are often of a dark grey colour, inclining to black; sometimes, and especially on the last days they fell, they were of a brighter ash-colour. It is constantly observed that, when the volcanic sand that falls is of a whitish colour, the eruption is near its end. This white colour of the volcanic sand may be derived from two causes; a greater trituration and tenuity, as in the instance of green glass, which when finely pulverised becomes white, or a longer exposure to the action of acid vapours. The sand ejected by the volcano, in the earlier stages of its eruption, issues from a furnace full of matter; but the vapours, as it begins to empty, have room to act with greater effect on the remaining substances. Some particles of this volcanic sand placed over fire effuse a perceptible smell of sulphur; others, lixiviated, yield a muriate of soda or ammoniac, or the sulphate of iron; and often two or even the whole of these salts are produced from the same sand. The

Volcanic sand.

earthy matters which predominate are argil and silex.

State of atmosphere.

Barometer.

Buch's account.

"It might be imagined that the phenomena of this eruption, and especially those which took place from the evening of the 15th to the 20th, would have a considerable influence on the atmosphere of Naples, yet the meteorological observations, communicated to me by the astronomer Casselli, prove that the barometer had experienced no material alteration. Casselli made use of an English barometer, divided into inches and hundredth parts. From the 11th of June to the 15th it maintained itself between *29,51* and *29,58*. On the 16th and 17th it was stationary at *29,60*. The 18th it varied from *29,55* to *29,52*. The 19th from *29,50* it rose to *29,51*. The 20th it stood at *29,46*. The 21st between *29,46* and *29,49*. I conversed on this subject one day with Cotte, tolerably well known by his meteorological observations, who considered it as a very extraordinary circumstance. We were at the time at the house of Lametherie, who showed me a memoir on this subject written by M. de Buch, a learned mineralogist of Prussia, inserted in the Journal de Physique of Thermidor, An 7, under the title of *Considerations sur le barometre*, in which I found the following passage, which to me seemed curious: 'Vesuvius in 1794 seemed as if about to engulf all nature; the earth shook; horrible roarings threatened the destruction of the country; a dark night overshadowed the land; ashes fell to a considerable depth; flames and smoke rose to an elevation seven times as great as that of the mountain, that is to say, to a twelfth part of the height of the atmosphere; vivid lightnings flashed in every direction, and the atmosphere denoted an abundance of negative electricity, never observed during the reign of tranquillity; torrents of rain committed dreadful ravages on the fruits of the industry of man; and every meteorological instrument underwent the greatest alteration, the barometer alone excepted; this, like the sage among worldlings, took no part in the confusion by which it was surrounded, but on the contrary seemed as steady as its partners were wavering, agitated, and unquiet. It required the most practised eye to distinguish throughout ten days, in which nature experienced the most dreadful convulsion, the slightest imaginable variation of this instrument.'

" At length the rain of volcanic sand having ceased on the 20th, and that which was spread through the atmosphere being dispersed, Vesuvius again became apparent; but its appearance with

Fall of the summit.

reason occasioned surprise, for its summit had fallen in, and its mouth was considerably enlarged.

Globular clouds.

"Considerable eruptions evolved from it of an entirely different nature to those by which they were preceded. From the crater thick globular clouds issued, of such huge dimensions as to fill the whole cavity. Their surface appeared to be granulated like the head of a cauliflower; and, in proportion as they arose, they seemed to dilate and extend themselves. When the sun shone on them their irregular edges were of a whitish colour. In the body of the cloud were discerned substances of a greater specific gravity, which fell down again, unable to continue their ascent. Scarcely did one cloud proceed from the mouth before it was followed by another, so that the cone of Vesuvius was frequently crowned with a multitude of these voluminous clouds, continually fed and renewed by those which issued from the crater; and which rose to a height continually increasing till it exceeded that even of the mountain itself. These clouds were composed of fragments of ancient lava, and the rubbish of drosses and volcanic sand, projected into the air by the force of the explosion; and as one eruption scarcely waited

Of drosses and sand.

another, the immense quantities of stones, which struck against each other in the air; those which fell back into the cauldron, and those which from a prodigious height fell on the external walls of the volcano, produced a most frightful uproar.

Heavy rains.

" Such was the state of the volcano to the 5th of July; and during the whole interval another meteor occasioned incalculable damage to the fields in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius: this was rain, which for a fortnight was incessant, and mostly so violent that it laid waste the best grounds of Somma, Ottajano, and Bosco. Whenever a cloud appeared above the horizon, it seemed to be attracted by the volcano, and scarcely did it touch its summit ere immense streams were visible, precipitating themselves with horrible roaring to the base of the mountain. These impetuous torrents of water, mingled with volcanic powders, overturned the bridges, harrowed up the roads, tore up trees by the roots, and bore them along in their course, carried away houses, and utterly devastated the fields of one of the most rich and flourishing countries in the world. For the space of a fortnight its unfortunate inhabitants were in a state of uncertainty respecting their fate, and were repeatedly forced to abandon and flee from their dwellings, in the very dead of night, to preserve their lives. The appearance of the smallest cloud occasioned general consternation.

Mephitic vapours.

"Nor did the series of calamities which accompanied this fatal eruption terminate here. In different parts around the mountain, powerful murtherous vapours, of a mephitic nature, were exhaled. These manifested themselves, not only in the greater part of the cellars of the houses of Portici and Resina, but spread through the country, carrying desolation in their train, and destroying all the trees, which then were in the finest state of vegetation. They showed themselves in the different roads cut to ascend Vesuvius, and occasioned there the death of a number of animals, and even of some men. It was certainly a most afflicting scene to behold vast extents of ground in the highest state of culture, which fortunately had escaped the ravage of the rains, become in the space of a few days the prey of this terrible scourge, and all their verdure and all their trees withered by the baneful gas.

Spare the olive and pear trees.

"A very extraordinary phenomenon, and one highly worthy the attention of the naturalists who make the vegetable reign their study, accompanies this mephitic vapour: though it destroys all other vegetation, and causes even the roots of other plants and trees to perish in a few days, it neither injures the olive nor the pear-tree, which, in the midst of the general destruction, constantly retain their verdure and strength. This is a fact confirmed by all farmers, and which I have many times verified myself.

Gas.

" On examining this mephitic gas by the ordinary means, I found it to be composed of carbonic acid gas, azotic gas, and a portion of sulphuric acid, as is shewn by the precipitation of barytes, by the solution of muriate of barytes. The bad effect, therefore, of this gas on plants, is little matter for wonder, the deleterious nature of carbonic acid to the vegetable reign being known.

Lava of 1794.

" The colour of the lava of 1794 is a darkish grey, its hardness such as to yield sparks with steel, its grain coarse and earthy, its fracture irregular, its porousness various, for in some parts it is so compact as to resemble petrosilex in its grain; on moistening it, even by breathing, or on being wetted, it exhales an earthy smell: finally, it powerfully answers the magnet. Seldom is mica found in this lava in laminæ, but often in groups and small united masses; on these occasions it presents the same phenomena as in the lava of Granatello. The lava is rich in augite, which is frequently seen crystallised in its cavities, and often also intermixed with mica. Near the orifices of the volcano detached crystals of augite are found in abundance; they belong to those drosses and porous lavas, which the violence of the vapours, in the vicinity of the mouths, has decomposed without affecting the augite."

From the description of this celebrated volcano it is now proper to pass to its most peculiar production.

HYPONOME I. LAVA WITH LEUCITE.

This abounds in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius, particularly in the more ancient eruptions; Of Pompeia. and the streets of Pompeia, built when that volcano was extinct, were found to be paved with this lava. Breislak employs a chapter in the discussion of leucite, which is common in the ancient lavas of the territory of Naples and Rome[*]. There is an immense quantity of leucites in the Albano. mountains of Albano, Tivoli, Caprarola, Viterbo, Aquapendente, Civita Castellana, and Borghetto. They often occur in compact lava, sometimes in the vesicular, and even in the dross, which decomposing, leaves the crystals separate. They are found in the calcareous rocks of Somma, which may be regarded as fragments of a primitive rock, ejected without having undergone the action of volcanic fire*. Leucites are often conjoined with felspar and augite; and, like topaz, the earth of leucite may occur uncrystallised.

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[*] Voyage dans la Campanie, tome ii.

HYPONOME II. LAVA WITH CALCAREOUS SPAR.

Ferrara's account.

According to Ferrara, calcareous spar abounds in the ancient or rather primeval lavas of Sicily. Though the doctrine of infiltration begins to yield to that of contemporaneous sublimation by heat, yet his arguments in favour of the former have great weight; for when he afterwards mentions the zeolites found in the same basaltins, and the *analcimes* of Haüy, (which he proposes to call *cyclopites*, because they were first found in the rocks of the Cyclops, and appeared about the middle of last century in the cabinets of Prince Biscari, and of the Benedictine monastery,) he observes, that "this substance has not only infiltrated and crystalised in the most interior recesses of these enormous masses of the hard lava, but in a great quantity in the slits and in the middle of the marl, which forms a stratum above all these lavas; a convincing proof that its origin is posterior to the liquid state of the lava, and foreign to that sub-

Infiltrated.

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* Ibid. ii. 6.

stance*." That even the hardest metals and other substances have pores of extreme minuteness, undiscernable by the best microscopes, is a well known fact in natural history; and gases may penetrate where the purest water may be excluded.

" Calcareous spars, or crystalised carbonate of lime, is the most abundant substance in these ancient lavas. It is sometimes confusedly crystalised like stalactites, and like them also with concentric layers, which indicate the successive depositions; but often in solid globules, which perfectly fill the cavity, as is generally the case with all the lavas of southern Sicily. I found some with those globules six lines in diameter, on the mountain of Carlintini; and behind Lentini, near Ferla, there are masses of lava in fragments, in which these calcareous globules are so numerous, that they may be said to be conglomerated by a little argillaceous cement. These masses are very friable, and the diameter of the globules varies with the size of the vesicles in which they were formed. I have also found them abundant in the lavas near Pedagaggi, Palagonia, and other places. Many of these globules, but chiefly the larger, have a radiated structure, and may be observed to be formed by the union of several py-

Sites.

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* Ferr. 184.

ramids of three sides, joined at the centre, with diverging rays; their bases forming the surface of the circumference, but they are often covered with a spherical layer of the same substance, confusedly crystallised. Such are seen in the lavas of Murgo, between Simeto and Lentini; in the Rocks of the Cyclops; and I have found them, from four to six lines in diameter, in the vesicles of the lava which is scattered in fragments on the chalky mountain of Cifali, near Catania, where they form curious fans when gently broken.

"But more commonly this calcareous substance lines the cavities under the stalagmitic form, in the shape of hanging crystals, or implanted globules. I have beautiful specimens collected to the west of Lentini: some of the globules are void, the inner surface being only crystalised in what was formerly called the dogs-tooth spar, but now the *metastatic* of that diligent crystalographer Haüy. Under the same form these spars line the cavities of the beautiful tufo around Cape Passaro, formed of fragments of lava and limestone, and many masses of lava alone; and in the rocks of the Cyclops it is not only found in the cavities, but forming layers above the lava, and even above the stratum of marl which covers these famous rocks.

"This substance is still more frequent in the Others.

cavities of a hard and compact lava, in the neighbouring mountains of Trezza, on the hill of Cifali, and in the neighbourhood of Paterno, disposed in beautiful starry crystals, formed of splendid pyramidal plates, more or less transparent, united in the centre; diverging sometimes with aggregated rays, sometimes with distinct, and of various length; sometimes they are fascicular. But the calcareous spar assumes a vast number of forms, of which it is capable. In the heaviest and most compact lavas of the rock of Motta, the cavities concealed in the mass, and which were formed while the paste was in a kind of ferment, are lined with the same substance, covered with many minute globules, but not visibly crystalised; and I have found it in the same form in the lava on the high summit of the mountain of S. Vennera.

" This calcareous spar may be said to be always white; but the iron proceeding from the decomposition of lavas, often tinges it with various colours, from blood-red to deep brown. I have found some at Favarotta, near the lake of Palici, which could not be distinguished, except by the chemical test.

" At no great distance from the mountain of Paterno, there is a vast heap of large masses of lava, containing crystals of felspar, where there are some cavities filled with calcareous spar in bright silky threads of unequal length, united in fasces, with diverging rays; but the chief singularity is, that all the mass is full of petrol, which also fills many of the cavities. On breaking this lava the oil runs out, which, though of a black colour, is so subtile as to approach naphtha, with a pungent smell, which it soon loses in the air. There seems no reason to doubt that this petrol has been produced by infiltration *."

HYPONOME III. INDURATED MUD WITH FELSPAR, SIDERITE, &c.

NOME VIII. VOLCANIC GLUTENITE.

This denomination includes, as usual, what are called bricias and pudding-stones, being fragments of different rocks joined by lava or tufo. The *peperino* of the Italians is a volcanic bricia; the cement being a grey pumaceous tufo, in which are concreted fragments of granite, felsite, marble, gypsum, with crystals of siderite and mica. In the extinct volcano of Beaulieu, three leagues to the N. W. of Aix in Provence, Saussure observed a singular pudding-stone, composed of fragments of vesicular Peperino.

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* Ferrara, 179.

lava, mingled with others of a violet colour, and bits of white limestone[*]. Dolomieu describes a siliceous lava, which is a bricia of siliceous substances and pumice. In another passage he seems to doubt whether Etna ever had any eruptions of mud, so common in the continental volcanos of Italy, and which, according to him, have formed stones of an argillaceous base called *peperino;* nor are there any bricias called tufo, formed in the water by volcanic ejections[†]. He however describes a glutenite of fragments of compact lava, black clay rock, and spathose iron ore, cemented by a clay with red and white veins. What is called leucite lava is a glutenite of those crystals, cemented by tufo or compact lava.

Bricias.

Tufo itself may be regarded as a glutenite or volcanic sandstone; but in this instance forms so important a feature of volcanic eruptions, that it has been considered apart: so that the present division must only be understood to comprise what are called large-grained glutenites, though in some instances tufo may pass into bricia. In his classification of volcanic substances Faujas has joined them together; but his account shall be transcribed, as it presents ne instructive remarks and interesting singu-ities: and the extreme minuteness of the de-iptions will serve fully to instruct the reader the nature of these complex substances, the ngled products of fire and water*.

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[*] § 1529.

[†] Ponces, 108, Etna 354. But compare Ferrara.

Catalogue by Faujas.

" *Division 1. Bricias, whose formation is ing to lavas, which in their state of fluidity ve embraced other kinds of lavas, whether com-t or porous, scorified, vitreous, or other stony stances reduced into fragments. When the stances thus imbedded present kernels more or s angular of a certain size, and the lava which ites them is hard and solid, they may be called canic bricias. If, on the contrary, the frag-nts are very small, and the paste which sur-nds them is friable, soft, and rather earthy in stony, the name tufo is more applicable.*

From fire.

" 1. Volcanic bricia, formed of angular and nd fragments of black compact lava, of black a rather porous, and some grains of white fel-ar, strongly united by a very hard granular a, of a reddish colour.

" 2. Bricia, formed of angular fragments of ck lava, hard, with small pores, united in a fine paste of reddish lava, which had a tendency to pass to the state of pumice.

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* This is also from the *Annales du Museum*. In the *Geologie*, inally delivered as a course of lectures, it is much abridged.

" 3. Bricia, similar in aspect to the preceding, but different from it in as much as the fragments of black lava, instead of being porous, are in the state of semi-vitreous drosses, of a very bright black. The grey paste which unites this bricia, and gives it a strong consistence, is composed of fine particles, but rather scaly, very nearly allied to hard pumice.

" 4. Bricia, formed of angular fragments of black porous lava, of some small grains of white felspar, opake, blended in a paste of grey pumice with small pores.

" 5. Bricia, with angular fragments of white calcareous stone, grey and sometimes reddish, of the nature of marble, capable of receiving a polish, every where and in every direction enclosed in a grey lava, hard, sprinkled with fragments and crystals of white felspar, diaphanous and shattered, of black hornblende, with some grains of pyroxene of a grass green, and with some spangles of silvery mica: this last is found in it in a very small quantity. This bricia is hard enough to be sawed and polished: it strongly attracts the magnet.

" 6. Bricia, with large fragments of white marble, of yellowish marble with a fine saline grain, which takes the polish; of grey stone of a very fine paste, which cannot be scratched by steel, but which nevertheless effervesces briskly with nitrous acid: it seems to be siliceo-calcareous. The different fragments of these stones are imbedded in a grey lava, rather earthy, but solid, mixed with many black pyroxenes, divided into very small fragments.

" 7. Bricia, with fragments of white and grey marble, and some kernels formed of a mixture of clear felspar, and a black substance which has some resemblance to hornblende. Conglomerated nodules of black mica are also found in it. The several foreign bodies are imbedded in a grey lava, which contains in great abundance small fragments of pyroxene, of a brilliant black in appearance, but which, observed with a lens in a strong light, are found to be green: some strongly marked crystals of that substance are even distinguished, which are diaphanous and of a grass green, and some spangles of silvery mica.

" 8. Bricia, with large nodules of volcanic chrysolite, of a greenish and yellowish colour, mixed with large fragments of porous lava, and of black compact lava almost scorified, cemented by a grey lava, which itself contains a number of sandy grains of black lava.

" 9. Bricia of a yellowish base, with very large fragments of a black compact basaltic lava, filled with vitreous grains of chrysolite of a yellowish green, and a number of smaller fragments of black lava with small pores, some of which are vitrified. The yellowish and rather earthy lava, which cements this bricia, contains some grains of black pyroxene, which seem to have been melted; and of flaky felspar, changed and of a dirty white.

" *Division 2. Bricias, or volcanic tufos, formed by the concurrence of fire and water, carried to the highest degree of temperature: the water introducing itself by some subterranean communications into the burning centre of volcanos, has produced results and particular combinations, which partake of the contrary properties of those two elements.*

From fire and water.

" 1. Bricia of an ashy grey base, formed of a number of fragments, rather porous, of black basaltic lava, mixed with many grains of chrysolite, of large fragments of quartzose sandstone with parallel zones, white and red, irregular pieces of hard grey marl, reddish in many parts, and of some geods with a crust of brown hematite, which seem to be the result of the infiltrations of a marl, which is found in pieces in this bricia, and which is strongly impregnated with iron.

" 2. Bricia, formed of fragments of *brown porphyry*, and of *porphyry with a red base*, with parallelopiped crystals of white felspar, fragments of *white marble*, surrounded in their points of contact with black lineaments, which seem to be the result of an aqueous dissolution, which has intimately united all the parts which compose this singular bricia. The grey lava which forms its base, and which contains some grains of black melted pyroxene, is so amalgamated, by the assistance of calcareous infiltrations, with the other parts of the bricia, that the whole forms a substance capable of being polished.

Division 3. Bricias, or volcanic tufos, formed by ejections of substances reduced to pieces, to grains, or to powder, sometimes carried to a distance by explosions and by the winds, afterwards uniting, whether they fall into the sea, or are deposited in places where the rain water consolidates them, as at Pompeia, and elsewhere.

" 1. Volcanic tufo, which owes its origin to showers of black and grey pumice, divided into From water.

fragments the size of an olive, and sometimes of a nut, adhering by the points of contact, the matter which unites them not being distinguishable. This tufo is exceeding light, but not of a strong consistence.

"2. Tufo, whose base is a pumice reduced into so fine a powder that it has the appearance of an argillaceous substance: this unites a number of very small grains of pumice, dryer, harsher to the feel, and much less altered, and very distinct pieces of porous lava, although partly discoloured. This tufo forms one of the varieties of trass of Pleyt, in the environs of Andernach. What I have said of it in a distinct memoir may be consulted, in which I have described the several considerable quarries of these tarrasses, which are wrought to be converted into cement. See *Annales du Museum*, vol. i. p. 15.

"3. Tufo, formed of a mixture of pumice in powder or in grains, angular fragments of black compact basaltic lava, and small scaly fragments of a grey schistus, rather shining, not volcanic, which has been cast up with the other substances. It is in this variety of tufo, which has much more solidity than the preceding, and which has formed beds and masses more than fifty feet thick, that there are sometimes found cylindrical pieces of real charcoal, as sound and well preserved as if they had lately been prepared. See what I have said of this curious variety of trass of the environs of Andernach, vol. i. p. 24, of the *Annales du Museum.* Spallanzani found a similar charcoal in a tufo of the isle of Lipari. See also vol. iii. p. 11, of Spallanzani's *Voyage to Sicily.*

" *Of the particular configuration peculiar to some tufos.*"

Tufo in prisms.

" *Note.*—It must be observed, that under some circumstances tufos, particularly those which owe their origin to the concurrence of fire and water, have undergone a recession which has given them a prismatic form. I have seen similar ones, but in small quantities, in the extinct volcanos of Habischwald, near Hesse Cassel. The most remarkable of this kind are those of Campania, near the town of *St. Agatha,* also between Mounts *Sarchio* and *Vitolano,* near a place called *La Varrettella:* but the largest and the best formed are those which are found on the road to *Venafro,* near the bridge of *Calvi* and the tavern of Torricella.

Chalcedony.

" Chalcedonic substances are sometimes found in tufos, which seem to be the result of a secondary formation, such as those of *Pont-du-Chateau,* and of some other parts of Auvergne, where fine lentils of chalcedony, and chalcedonic crystallised quartz, are found. The *perlstein* of *Sancta Fiora*, on the confines of Tuscany, is an analogous chalcedonic substance, which is also found in a tufo; and the *muller-glass*, which was discovered by Dr. Muller of Frankfort, and thought to be a glass, is only a very fine chalcedonic substance, with the lustre and transparence of glass. Muller observed this substance formed in drops on a porous lava*. I have found it on the tufos of Bocheneim, near Frankfort, spread like a shining varnish, and pretty thick, on the surface.

" *Of some substances of the organised kingdom, which are accidentally found in tufos.*

Bones found in tufo.

" 1. The fossil tusks of the elephant have been found in tufo in the neighbourhood of Rome. The Duke of Rochefoucault found one himself of a gigantic size, as it was eight feet long and fourteen inches in circumference: he sent it to M. Buffon: it may be seen in one of the galleries of the Museum of Natural History at Paris.

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* Faujas has added, Geol. ii. 147, that Muller said to him, " *I have infinite obligations to natural history, it charms my last moments, and the weight of ninety-five years, my present age, does not weaken its power. One has always fresh enjoyments, one lives without reproach, and one does not die, but falls asleep.*"

" 2. The grinders and the thigh-bones of an elephant, were discovered in the midst of tufo, in a vineyard not far from the *Porta del Popolo* at Rome. Count Morozo sent the description of it to M. *de Lacepede*, who inserted it in the Journal de Physique, vol. 54, page 444.

" 3. In digging some years since, in a tufo of Mont Couerou, in the department of Ardèche, near the commune of Arbres, to find a spring, M. Lavalette found a tusk of a young elephant, half petrified, but perfectly characterised. On this subject I published an account in the *Annals de Museum*, see vol. ii. p. 23, where the tusk is represented.

Shells.

" 4. Different kinds of shells are found, as well univalve as bivalve, in some tufos; and these shells are scarcely altered.

" The valley of Ronca, so well described by Fortis, and which he justly calls *volcanico-marine*, in the territory of Verona, contains many shells in the tufo.

" Dr. Thompson an English naturalist, residing at Naples, possesses in his rich collection some fine samples of tufos, which are found scattered in different places of Vesuvius. Some contain marine substances, and he has one in which is distinguished a madrepore, common in the sea of Naples; it is the *retepora spongites* of Linneus, the *porus anguinus* of Imperati.

" In the magnificent gardens of the Elector of Hesse Cassel, at Waissenstein, in the midst of a volcanic soil, is found a sandy tufo, filled with beautiful shells of different kinds; among which I observed the *Venus islandica* of Lamarck, and the *arca pilosa* of Linneus.

" I possess in my collection, a shell of the genus cone, in a very hard volcanic tufo, which has filled its interior, found on the sea shore at St. Croix, in Teneriffe; it was given to me by M. Bailly, one of the mineralogists in the expedition of Capt. Baudin.

Lignite.

" 5. I have already mentioned wood changed to coal, which is found at a great depth in the tufo, of the environs of Andernach, and in that of Lipara.

Plants.

" 6. I ought not to pass in silence, the tufo of Rochesauve, in Vivarais, of which the beds seem to alternate with other fossile beds of a light marl, which contains leaves of trees and plants, whose fibres are in the most beautiful preservation, but whose parenchyme is black and carbonised. I have a numerous collection of those plants, which I gathered on the spot: I intend shortly to make them public, by having them engraved, and to give the explanations of those which have relations with known species."

HYPONOME I. VOLCANIC BRICIA.

The various kinds are already mentioned.

Micronome 1. Peperino.
From the environs of Vesuvius, &c.*

Micronome 2. Leucite Lava.
From Vesuvius, Albano, &c.

NOME IX. SUBSTANCES EJECTED OR CHANGED.

Many kinds of rocks are at various periods ejected by volcanoes; often with some marks of fusion, but in many instances, exploded by the vapours, without being visibly affected by heat. Whole masses of rock, nay mountains, are also found changed by the action of the subterranean vapours, as the celebrated Puy-de-Dome, which, according to Saussure § 728, 729, is a porphyry with a base of earthy felspar; and he found one of the same kind in the Valorsine. Mont Dor

Puy-de-Dome.

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* *Monte Nuovo* near Naples, consists of indurated powder, pumice, and fragments of lava intermingled, forming a peperino.

also presents granite, evidently affected by heat, the felspar having become dull and shattered*. Several altered rocks are found in volcanic regions; and even the lavas sometimes become white, by the action of sulphuric vapours†.

HYPONOME I. LIMESTONE.

Parasitic stones.

This substance deserves the first place, as that ejected by Vesuvius is not only more frequent in cabinets than any other exploded rock, but contains several remarkable parasitic stones; such as 1. The *Vesuvian* of Werner, and *idocrase* of Hauy, the *jacint* of *Vesuvius* according to Saussure, the colour resembling that of a pale jacint. It is also found of an olive green, whence it is sometimes called *chrysolite* by the Neapolitan lapidaries. It would seem that the latter is, however, the same with the *olivine* of Werner, also called *volcanic chrysolite* ‡. 2. The *sommite* of

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* It is surprising that the French writers continue to spell d'Or as if it were the golden mountain, while Le Grand (Voyage d'Auvergne ii. 66.) has demonstrated, that the name was taken from the river Dor, which, with the Dogne, forms the Dordogne.

† The lava decomposes into clay, or rather the argil displays itself; whence the environs of volcanos are very fertile.

‡ Because the olivine is found in basalt, the Wernerians reject it from the volcanic substances, while it is in fact the common volcanic chrysolite, as Breislak has shewn. Gioeni, p. 217, observes, that many scoriæ of Vesuvius and Etna contain a yellowish substance like glass, perfectly resembling that in the native iron of Siberia.

Karsten, the *nephiline* of Haüy, of a white or greenish grey, found in the ejected rocks of Mount Somma, which may be styled the parent of Vesuvius. Leucite is also found in the calcareous rocks of Somma, according to Breislak: but the *pyroxene* of Haüy, the *augite* of Werner, of a dark brown or green colour, rather belongs to granitic rocks.

Limestone, with volcanic jacint and chrysolite, from Vesuvius.

The same with leucite, from Monte Somma. Kirwan has strangely confounded the volcanic jacint, or vesuvian of Werner, with leucite or white garnet.

Limestone with sommite, from Monte Somma.

HYPONOME II. GRANITE.

In this substance the felspar, which, owing to the mixture of potash, is the most easily fusible, is sometimes either melted or shattered by the heat*. But the granitic lavas of Dolomieu, and other French writers, seem problematic. That patient observer says that he never saw them in such abundance, nor with such convincing proofs of having been fused, as at Sancta Fiora, on the confines of Tuscany and the Papal territories. If the ejected granite contains garnets, they are commonly vitrified.

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* In the language of jewellers *stunned*, corresponding with the French *etonné*.

Saussure observed, § 730, the effects of vitrification on granites in the lime-kilns of Chamouni. Those that have suffered the least heat, are known by the dull white appearance, and cracks of the quartz and felspar, and by the glossy golden lustre of the mica. In a greater degree of heat the mica and felspar appear melted, but without derangement. In the greatest heat, the mica [illegible] melted into large round bubbles, while the felspar looks like glass with microscopic bubbles; and the quartz is only of a dull white, without any appearance of fusion.

HYPONOME III. MICA-SLATE.

This sometimes accompanies ejected granites.

HYPONOME IV. SLATE.

This substance is chiefly conspicuous among the ejections of Hecla.

HYPONOME V. BASALTON.

HYPONOME VI. PORPHYRY.

These two kindred rocks are frequent in volcanic countries; and abound among the ejections of New Spain, and other volcanic regions.

HYPONOME VII. SANDSTONE.

This substance seems one of the rarest of the ejections; while, as it generally, if not always, accompanies coal, if the Wernerian theory of volcanoes were just, it would be among the most common.

This arrangement of volcanic substances being, from its nature, rather jejune, it may be proper somewhat to diversify it by a few general remarks, and some examples of singular volcanoes, chiefly from Patrin and other foreign authors, whose works have not been translated. It might have been thought unpardonable to have passed, with irreverent brevity, some of the grandest features of nature; especially as the recent progress of mineralogy has thrown new light on many topics; and the ignorance of the ancient accounts has been dispelled by the precision of modern science.

Patrin's theory.

Patrin has started a singular idea concerning volcanic substances in general, which is, that they are *created* by gases; otherwise, in his opinion, it would be impossible to account for the vast quantity of matter ejected; and the volcanic mountains would, long since, have sunk into their own abysses. He introduces this new system by the theory of that great astronomer and geometrician Laplace, that *this earth, and the other planetary bodies, have been formed by the concretion of an aëriform fluid, which emanated from the sun.* The account, given by Dolomieu, of the singular *perpetual* volcano of Stromboli, furnishes our ingenious author with his chief arguments in favour of this hypothesis.

Stromboli.

"The volcano of Stromboli is one of the most curious and important in the illustration of volcanic phenomena. It is in one of the isles of Eolus, on the north of Sicily; and Dolomieu's description is very interesting. This volcano was already noted in the days of Pliny; and its eruptions, from time immemorial, arise every eight minutes, so that it would seem that nature there displays every moment the concretion of gases into stoney matter, as a chemist shews it in his laboratory.

'The inflamed crater,' says Dolomieu, 'is in the north-west part of the isle, on the side of the mountain. I saw it dart, during the night, at regular intervals of seven or eight minutes, ignited stones, which rose to the height of more than a hundred feet, forming radii a little divergent, but of which the greater quantity fell back into the crater; while others rolled even to the sea. Each explosion was accompanied with a burst of red flame . . . . The stones ejected are of a lively red, and sparkle, having the effect of artificial fireworks.'

" I must here remark that these sparkling masses with the effect of fireworks, announce that their base is combustible.

" Having visited the mountain on the following day, Dolomieu thus continues his description.

' From a little summit, you have a view of the inflamed crater . . . . It is very small; I do not think that it exceeds fifty paces in diameter, having the form of a funnel terminating in a point. During all the time that I observed it, the eruptions succeeded with the same regularity as during the night . . . the stones ejected forming divergent rays; and the greater part, which fell back into the crater, rolling to the bottom seemed to obstruct the vent, which the vapours had opened at the moment of the explosion, and were thus again ejected by the subsequent eruption. They are thus tossed till they are broken and reduced to cinders (coarse powder). *But the volcano always affords a new supply; and is inexhaustible in this kind of production.* The approach of the eruption is not announced by any noise or dull murmur in the interior of the mountain; and it is always by surprise that one sees the stones darted into the air. There are times when the eruptions are more precipitate and violent: and the stones, describing more divergent rays, are thrown into the sea at a considerable distance. In general the inflammation is more considerable in the winter than in the summer; and more on the approach, and during the rage, of storms, than in calm weather.'*

"The author afterwards adds, that 'Stromboli is the only known volcano which has such frequent eruptions. The fermentation of the others increases progressively, but here the eruption is constant . . . . and it would seem that it arises from air or inflammable vapours, which suddenly kindle and explode, expelling the stones which impede the vent."†

Patrin proceeds to argue, on his system, 1. That the eruptions of Stromboli arise from a cause always reproduced, otherwise it would have been exhausted. 2. That the stony masses are instantaneously formed, by the contact of the air; as magic alone could always supply a like number of stones, and still preserve the precise form of the crater. 3. That the focus is of little depth, as there are no commotions nor subterranean noises, and the stones diverge; for a cannon scatters grape-shot in proportion to its shortness. 4. That electric fluid is a principal agent in volcanoes, ιuse the eruptions are more frequent and vio- in winter, and in stormy weather. He con- ies that volcanoes, like springs, are emanations uids constantly reproduced.

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* Lipari, 113.

† Patrin, Min. v. 228.

errara has simply observed that Stromboli ts in a year, what a volcano, subject to violent ›tions, would explode in a day. He regards erely as a volcano of an uncommon construc-

Isle of Bourbon,

. volcano in the isle of Bourbon sometimes ls Stromboli in singularity, a *gerbe* or sheaf ing, like what is called a Chinese tree in arti- l fireworks, and resembling tumultuous waves re, darted to the height of more than a hun- l and twenty feet, and dashing against each r with a sanguine light, visible even at noon- The summit presents glassy drosses; and crater is lined with fragments of greyish lava h scorified*.

Submarine volcanoes.

he history of submarine volcanoes might be trated by the details which we have concern- the new isles which have appeared near San- ι, in the Grecian archipelago.

ı his history of volcanoes, Ordinaire has given following account of these phenomena.

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* Bory, Voy. 1804, 3 vols. 8vo. ii. 231.

Thera.

"The island of Thera, afterwards St. Irene, and now Santorin, was surnamed by the Grecians Καμινοι, that is to say, burnt: and so in fact the soil is. 'There is a tradition,' says Pliny, lib. 2. cap. 87, 'that it rose out of the sea, at a very remote but unknown period.' This tradition is rendered probable, by the known events, which have since taken place near it.

"This island with that of Milo, of which we have spoken, and that of Paros, so famous for its marble, forms a triangle, the sides of which are about fifteen leagues each. I suspect that there is a considerable central fire among them, of which the volcano of Milo might have formerly been an exhaling point above water; though it is certainly at present unconnected with it, which appears from the effects of that volcano being in themselves slight, and from the situation of Milo being nowise affected in the great commotions of Santorin. I found my suspicion of this central fire on a vast number of *small burnt islands*, as they are called on the chart of that sea, which are scattered in the midst of the three principal islands, and of which several had not appeared till within the eighteenth century. Almost all of them are near Milo, where there is less depth of water. I should imagine that these small islands are simply the productions of the central fire. The sea, on the contrary, is

Burnt isles.

very deep towards Santorin, where it covers the mountain, whence proceed incessant eruptions. There is no ground for anchoring near it, as is mentioned by M. de Bomare, vol. xv. page 128 of his Dictionary.

"Whatever on the surface of this sea-covered mountain be the quantity of matter which has issued from it, when the fires once set in motion in the void at its base within become active, they rise violently and carry the matter along with them, being always confined in their direction by the internal form of the mountain. Its summit then, and the parts round its summit, are always the points most strongly attacked; there it must and does in fact give way, as is the case with a volcano on land opening for the first time. And when eruptions take place in a submarine volcano, the masses already settled are always affected by them, and partly open, and their surfaces either gain by the addition and adhesion of new ejections, or lose by some of their parts sinking into the fiery abyss, or into the sea. This is confirmed by all the eruptions, and particularly by the circumstances attending the last. They are to be found in all the periodical writings of that time. An account was published by Father Gorée, who was an eye-witness of it; and of his narrative I will give an abstract, after I have taken notice of the eight known eruptions which were prior to it.

"They are all interesting to a laudable curiosity, and proper to throw light on this operation of nature; but as the circumstances of this grand phenomenon are nearly always alike, I *shall* do little more than date the former eruptions, reserving for the account of the last the most remarkable particulars which generally attended the eruptions.

Others. "In the fourth year of the 135th Olympiad, that is to say, in the year 236 before Christ, the island of Therasia rose in the midst of fire out of the sea: it is separated from Santorin by a strait of a mile and a half in breadth.

"A hundred and thirty years after, the island of Automate, which having been consecrated to Vulcan, was afterwards more known by the name of Hiera, or the Consecrated, rose near it.

"After another lapse of a hundred and ten years, in the like manner was formed a third island, called Thia, at two stadia, or two hundred and fifty paces, from Hiera.

"These three eruptions are recorded by Pliny, in the place before cited; by Strabo, lib. 1; and by Seneca, in his Naturales Quæstiones, lib. 6, cap. 21.

"In the year 726, the volcano, after violent ejections of ashes and red-hot rocks, disgorged a great quantity of lava, which joined Thia to Hiera.

"In 1457, this island was still farther increased, attended by the same circumstances. This event, and the date of it, are attested by an inscription on a marble stone erected near the gate of Fort Scarus, in Santorin.

"A sixth eruption, in 1570, produced a new island: it is called the Little Kamenoi.

"In 1650, the agitations of the volcano lasted almost a twelvemonth. Its greatest convulsions were at the beginning, from its opening on the 24th of September to the 9th of October. The sea rose to the height of forty-five feet, and that to such a distance, that some galleys of the Grand Seignor's were wrecked in the port of Candia, though it is more than eighty miles from Santorin. Smyrna and Constantinople were incommoded with the ashes which rushed out of the sea in whirlwinds of flame. All the particulars of this eruption are to be found in Kircher, a contemporary author, after the account of the preceding.

Eruptions of 1707.

"This inexhaustible volcano again opened in 1707. The Little Kamenoi was increased, and is now more than three leagues in circumference.

"Most of these eruptions, and all the circumstances attending the last mentioned, are reported in the third volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of inscriptions, and in those of the Academy of Sciences, of the year 1708.*

Of 1767. "The eruption of 1767 took place between the Little Kamenoi, and the island of Hiera. It began in the month of June. The earth, after being shaken violently for some days by the action of fire, raised the sea in such a manner as to occasion a dread of its swallowing up all the islands thereabout. A thick black smoke darkened the air, and infected it with so strong a stench of sulphur, that many persons and animals were suffocated by it. Black ashes, resembling gunpowder, fell all round. Torrents of flame, issuing from the sea, and waving on it to the height of several feet, lighted at intervals this horrible scene. The frightful mixture of different sounds, produced by all the elements in fury, froze every heart with a dread of the horrors which every instant might be the result of their conflict.

"At length, after a labour of ten or twelve days, Nature paused, and the effect of her agitation was discovered in a new island, which had risen near the Little Kamenoi. There was no time lost in going to examine it. Many parts of it were still burning. It was a shapeless mass of baked substances, amalgamated by a lava, which, Father Gorée says, appeared to the eye like the crumb of fine bread. But the very next day the inquirers were compelled to relinquish this hasty curiosity, and betake themselves to flight. They felt the new soil moving: it rose in some parts and sunk in others. The earth, sea, and sky, soon resumed their formidable appearance. The symptoms appeared even to spread wider and to threaten worse. The boiling sea several times changed colour: flames, following one another without intermission, issued as from a vast furnace, but accompanied with ashes and pumice. The frightful noise of subterranean thunders was heard. It seemed as if enormous rocks, darting from the bottom of the abyss, beat against the vaults above it, and were alternately repelled and thrown up again: the repetition of their blows was distinctly heard. Some of them, making or finding a passage, were seen flying up red-hot into the air, and again falling into the sea whence they had just been ejected. Masses were produced, held together for some days, and then disappeared. In this general disorder large portions of the Little Kamenoi were swallowed up. Meanwhile the labour of the volcano took a larger surface, its ejections became prodigiously abundant, and a new island was seen forming. By successive additions, continued for near four months, it made a junction with that produced in June. It was named the *Black* Island, from the colour of its soil. It is nearly twice as large as the Little Kamenoi, and is separated from it by a very narrow strait. The volcano continued creating alarm till the end of May in the following year; frequently shaking the earth and sea, and causing frightful noises. It even opened again, but only for a moment, on the 15th of April, and threw out a multitude of large burning rocks, which fell at the distance of two miles.

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* An abstract of these remarkable phenomena shall presently be given.—P.

"It is therefore proved by nine eruptions recorded in history, that there exists a maritime volcano at Santorin. These eruptions have happened in the space of twenty-one centuries."*

But of the noted eruptions of 1707, a more minute and satisfactory account had before appeared in another work.

Eruptions of 1707.

"Acroteri is an island famous in natural history, and is situated in latitude 36° north, longitude 26° east; it seems to be composed of pumice-stone, encrusted with a surface of fertile earth, and the ancients represent it as rising, in a violent earthquake, out of the sea. Four other islands had the same origin, and yet the sea is here of such a depth as to be unfathomable by any sounding-line. These arose at different times; the first long before the commencement of the Christian æra, another in the first century, a third in the eighth, and a fourth in 1573. Another island arose in the year 1707 and 1708, between this island and *Great Cammeni*. The reader will not be displeased at seeing here a particular account of this extraordinary phenomenon.

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* Ord. 279.

Santorin.

"On the 23d of May 1707, after an earthquake that happened the night before, the last mentioned island was discovered early in the morning by some seamen, who, taking it for a wreck, rowed immediately toward it; but finding rocks and earth instead of the remains of a ship, hasted back, and spread the news of what they had seen in Santorini. How great soever the apprehensions of the inhabitants were at the first sight, their surprise soon abated; and in a few days, seeing no appearance of fire or smoke, some of them ventured to land on the new island. Their curiosity led them from rock to rock, where they found a kind of white stone that cut like bread, which it nearly resembled in its form, colour, and consistence. They also found many oysters sticking to the rocks; but while they were employed in gathering them, the island moved and shook under their feet, upon which they ran with precipitation to their boats. With these motions and tremblings the island increased, not only in height, but in length and breadth; yet sometimes while it was raised and extended on one side, it sunk and diminished on the other. Our author observed a rock to rise out of the sea, forty or fifty paces from the island, which, having continued four days, sunk, and appeared no more; but several others appeared and disappeared alternately, till at last they remained fixed and unmoved. In the mean time the colour of the surrounding sea was changed: at first it was of a light green, then reddish, and afterwards of a pale yellow, accompanied with a noisome stench, which spread itself over part of Santorini.

"On the 16th of July the smoke first appeared, not indeed from the island, but from a *ridge* of black stones which suddenly rose about sixty paces from it, where the depth of the sea was unfathomable. Thus there were two separate islands, one called the *White*, and the other the *Black Island*, from their different appearances. This thick smoke was of a whitish colour, like that of a lime-kiln, and was carried by the wind to Santorini, where it penetrated the houses of the inhabitants.

"In the night between the 19th and 20th of

July, flames began to issue with the smoke, to the great terror of the inhabitants of Santorini, especially those of the castle of Scaro, who were not above a mile and a half distant from the burning island, which now increased very fast; large rocks daily springing up, which sometimes added to its length, and sometimes to its breadth. The smoke also increased, and, there being no wind, it ascended so high as to be seen at Candia, and other distant islands. During the night it resembled a column of fire, fifteen or twenty feet high; and the sea was then covered with a scurf or froth, in some places reddish, and in others yellowish, from which proceeded such a stench, that the inhabitants throughout the whole island of Santorini burnt perfumes in their houses, and made fires in the streets to prevent infection. This, indeed, did not last above a day or two; for a strong gale of wind dispersed the froth, but drove the smoke upon the vineyards of Santorini, by which the grapes, in one night, were parched up and destroyed. This smoke also caused violent headaches, attended with retchings.

" On the 31st of July, the sea smoked and bubbled in two different places near the island, where the water formed a perfect circle, and looked like oil when ready to boil. This continued above a month, during which many fish were found dead on the shore of Santorini. The following night a dull hollow noise was heard, like the distant report of several cannon, which was instantly followed by flames of fire shooting up to a great height in the air, where they suddenly disappeared. The next day, the same hollow sound was several times heard, and succeeded by a blackish smoke, which, notwithstanding a fresh gale blew at the time, rose up in the form of a column to a prodigious height, and would probably in the night have appeared as if on fire.

" On the 7th of August the noise was different; it resembled that of large stones thrown all together into a deep well. This noise having lasted some days, was succeeded by another much louder, so nearly resembling thunder as hardly to be distinguished from three or four real claps that happened at the same time.

" On the 21st, the fire and smoke very considerably diminished; but the next morning they broke out with greater fury than before. The smoke was red, and very thick; and the heat was so intense, that all round the island the sea smoked and bubbled in a surprising manner. At night, our author viewing with a telescope a large furnace upon the highest part of the island, discovered sixty smaller openings or funnels, all emitting a very bright flame; and he imagined there might be as many more on the other side of the great volcano. On the 23d of August, in the morning, the island was much higher than the day before, and its breadth was increased by a chain of rocks sprung up in the night almost fifty feet above the water. The sea was also again covered with reddish froth, which always appeared when the island received any considerable additions, and occasioned an intolerable stench, till it was dispersed by the wind and the motion of the waves.

" On the 5th of September, the fire opened another vent at the extremity of the *Black Island*, from which it issued for several days, during which but little was discharged from the large furnace: and from this new passage the astonished spectators beheld the fire dart up three several times to a vast height, resembling so many prodigious sky-rockets of a glowing lively red. The following night the subterraneous fire made a terrible noise, and immediately after a thousand sheaves of fire blew up into the air, where, breaking and dispersing, they fell like a shower of stars upon the island, which appeared all in a blaze, presenting to the amazed spectators at once a most dreadful and beautiful illumination. To these natural fireworks succeeded a kind of meteor, which for some time hung over the castle of Scaro, which is seated on a high rock in the island of

Santorini, a meteor not unlike a fiery sword, and which served to increase the consternation of the inhabitants.

"On the 9th of September, the *White and Black Islands* united, after which the western end of the island daily increased. There were now only four openings that emitted flames, which issued forth with great impetuosity, sometimes attended with noise like that of a large organ-pipe, and sometimes like the howling of wild-beasts. On the 12th, the subterraneous noise became much augmented, having never been so frequent or so dreadful as on that and the following day. The bursts of this subterranean thunder, like a general discharge of the artillery of an army, were repeated ten or twelve times within twenty-four hours; and immediately after each clap, the large furnace threw up huge red-hot stones, which fell into the sea at a great distance. These claps were always followed by a thick smoke, which spread clouds of ashes over the sea, and the neighbouring islands.

"On the 18th of September, an earthquake was felt at Santorini, but did no great damage, though it considerably enlarged the burning island, and in several new places gave vent to the fire and smoke. The claps were also more terrible than ever, and in the midst of a thick smoke that appeared like a mountain, were seen and heard large pieces of rock, thrown up with as much noise and force as balls from the mouth of a cannon, which afterward fell upon the island, or into the sea. One of the small neighbouring islands was several times covered with these fiery stones, which, being thinly crusted over with sulphur, gave a bright light, and continued burning till that was consumed.

"On the 21st, after a dreadful clap of subterraneous thunder, very great lightnings ensued, and at the same instant the new island was so violently shaken, that part of the great furnace came tumbling down, and huge burning rocks were thrown to the distance of two miles and upward. This seemed to be the last effort of the volcano, and to have exhausted the combustible matter, as all was quiet for several days after. But on the 25th, the fire broke out again with still greater fury, and among the claps was one so terrible, that the churches of Santorini were soon filled with crowds of people, expecting every moment would be their last; and the castle and town of Scaro suffered such a shock, that the doors and windows of the houses flew open. The volcano continued to rage during the remaining part of the year; and in the month of January, 1708, the large furnace, without one day's intermission, threw out stones and flames at least once or twice, but generally five or six times, a day.

"On the 10th of February, in the morning, a pretty strong earthquake was felt at Santorini, which the inhabitants considered as a prelude to greater commotions in the burning island; nor were they deceived; for soon after the fire and smoke issued in prodigious quantities, the claps like thunder were redoubled, and nothing appeared but objects of horror and confusion; rocks of an amazing size were raised up to a great height above the water, and the sea raged and boiled to such a degree that it occasioned great consternation. The subterraneous bellowings were heard without intermission, and sometimes in less than a quarter of an hour there were six or seven eruptions from the large furnace. The noise of the repeated claps, the quantity of huge stones that flew about on every side, the houses tottering to their very foundations, and the fire, which now appeared in open day, surpassed all that had hitherto happened, and formed a scene astonishing beyond description.

"The 15th of April was rendered remarkable by the number and violence of the bellowings and eruptions; by one of which near a hundred large stones were thrown up all together into the air, and fell again into the sea at about two miles distance. From this time to the 23d of May, which might be called the anniversary of the birth of the new island, things continued much in the same state; but afterward the fire and smoke by degrees subsided, and the subterraneous thunders became less terrible.

"On the 15th of July, 1709, our author, accompanied by the Romish Bishop of Santorini, and some other ecclesiastics, hired a boat to take a near view of the island. They made directly toward it on that side where the sea did not bubble, but where it smoked very much. Being got into this vapour, they felt a close suffocating heat, and found the water very hot; upon which they directed their course toward a part of the island at the farthest distance from the large furnace. The fires, which still continued to burn, and the boiling of the sea, obliged them to take a great compass, and yet they felt the air about them very hot and sultry. Having encompassed the island, and surveyed it carefully from an adjacent one, they judged it to be two hundred feet above the sea, about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference; but not being thoroughly satisfied, they resolved to attempt to land, and accordingly rowed toward that part of the island where they perceived neither fire nor smoke; but when they got within a hundred yards of it, the great furnace discharged itself with its usual fury, and the wind blew upon them a thick smoke and a shower of ashes, which obliged them to quit their design. Having retired a little, they let down a plummet, with a line ninety-five fathoms long, but it was too short to reach the bottom. On their return to Santorini, they observed that the heat of the water had melted most of the pitch from their boat, which was therefore grown very leaky.

"From this time until the 15th of August, when our author left Santorini, the fire, smoke, and noise, remained very moderate; and by the accounts that he received from that place for several years after, it appears that the island still increased, but that the fire and subterraneous noises were much abated; and as the travellers who have since visited the Levant give no account of its burning, it has doubtless long since ceased.'

"Strange as this account may appear, it is allowed to be unquestionably true; and indeed, this is not the only instance, in modern times, of islands risen from the bottom of the sea; we have an account of one such in the *Philosophical Transactions, vol. v. page* 197, near the *Azores*, thus raised by subterraneous fires, in the year 1720.

" This happened in the beginning of December, 1720. In the night, a violent earthquake was felt on the island of Tercera; and the next morning the top of a new island appeared, which ejected a huge column of smoke. The pilot of a ship, who attempted to approach it, sounded on one side of the new formed island, with a line of sixty fathoms, but could find no bottom. On the opposite side, the sea was deeply tinged with various colours, white, blue, and green, and was very shallow. This island was larger on its first appearance than at some distance of time after; and at length sunk in such a manner as to be now only just above the level of the sea.

" Upon this extraordinary production of nature, the narrator remarks as follows:

' What can be more surprising than to see fire not only break out of the bowels of the earth, but also to make itself a passage through the waters of the sea! What can be more extraordinary, or foreign to our common notions of things, than to see the bottom of the sea rise up into a mountain above the water, and become so firm an island as to be able to resist the violence of the greatest storms! I know that subterraneous fires, when pent in a narrow passage, are able to raise up a mass of earth as large as an island; but that this should be done in so regular and exact a manner, that the water of the sea should not be able to penetrate and extinguish these fires; and after having been extinguished, that the mass of earth should not fall down, or sink again with its own weight, but still remain in a manner suspended over the great arch below! This is what to me seems more surprising than any thing that has been related of Mount Etna, Vesuvius, or any other volcano.'*

Number of volcanoes. Ordinaire estimates the number of volcanoes on this globe, in actual activity, at one hundred and eighty-nine; of which ninety-nine are on continents, and ninety in islands. But if we reflect on the vast portions of the earth which are still unexplored, particularly the interior of Africa, and of Notasia, it will not be thought rash, if the whole be estimated at two hundred and fifty; though in strict argument this number should be diminished, and not enlarged.

Extinct volcanoes. Nor will the candid inquirer reject the supposition of a vast number of volcanoes now extinct. Vesuvius itself has repeatedly been in this situation, as not only appears from the testimony of Strabo before adduced, but from others. For Diodorus Siculus, who flourished at the beginning of the reign of Tiberius, says Vesuvius emitted fire in the time of Hercules; and he adds, that in fact it retained many vestiges of conflagration*. Vitruvius had before asserted that the eruptions of Vesuvius were mentioned in history, and that pumice, there found, also appeared near Etna, and in those hilly parts of Mysia which the Greeks called the burnt country†. Silius Italicus also expresses the same tradition. Nay, in latter times, Vesuvius became extinct from A. D. 1136 till 1506, that is 370 years; the crater being filled with coppice woods and pools of water, refuges of the most timid animals‡.

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* Payne's Geogr. Extracts, p. 252.

From the month of October 1702, till July 1703, a series of earthquakes, like those of 1783, desolated the southern parts of Italy. Among other phenomena, a volcano near Sigillo, in Further Abruzzo, which had been extinct beyond all history or tradition, suddenly opened the cover of its crater, and smoke and flames issued for three days, after which it has remained tranquil. The mouth of the abyss is only about twenty-two feet in diameter; but no bottom can be found with a line of eighteen hundred feet*.

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* Lib. v. 21.

† Lib. ii. 6.

‡ Acad. Nap. apud Ord. 237.

It is now proper briefly to consider what are called Pseudo-Volcanoes; objects only important in the systems of a few mineralogists.

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* Mem. Acad. des Sc.

APPENDAGE TO THE VOLCANIC.

FUMAVOLS,

OR

PSEUDO-VOLCANOES.

FUMAVOLS.

THESE trifling ignitions of coal-pits are treated by the Wernerians with an importance truly ludicrous. Their chief products seem to be indurated clay, and, according to some, tripoli. Slates may also be turned to slags; and what is called porcelain jasper, probably an iron stone affected by the heat, also appears in the vicinity of those ignited spots, particularly near Dysert in Fifeshire, where a coal-mine has continued in a state of deflagration, at least since the time of Buchanan, 1560; for he minutely describes the spot in one of his poems. Nay, according to Mr. Kirwan, who quotes the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1781, the mountain of Cransac has continued burning since the year 1400.

Products of Fumavols.

Dysert.

Cransac.

It is observable, that Mr. Kirwan, and the other Neptunians, regard columnar argillaceous iron ore, which has a singular affinity with prismatic basaltin, as a product of these pseudo-volcanoes, a name which would more properly belong to mountains which, like that of Chimera, now called Goranto in Natolia, emit flame and smoke, without any other ejection; than to little ignited spots, which, like one of the Italian isles, might be called volcanellos. But a more proper name for these ignited hills and spots would be *fumarols*, already admitted into French from the Italian, as their chief mark is their smoking in rainy weather. Yet as *fumarol* has been used in a very confined acceptation, some may prefer *fumavols*, from their smoke, and diminutive resemblance of a volcano.

Name.

Among other causes of these ignitions may be mentioned saline ballast and rubbish of ships, which have formed a fumavol not a little destructive, near Sunderland in the north of England. Pallas mentions a mountain in Siberia which continued to burn for a long period, the original cause being a pine struck with lightning, which communicated the flame to the rest of the forest, and to the surface of the ground.

Morand's account.

M. Morand, in a curious memoir on the spontaneous inflammation of coal-mines, has described the singular fumavols or pseudo-volcanoes of Rovergue, a district of the former Guienne, lying on the south of Auvergne[*]. The mountain of Cransac is mentioned in charters, as burning in the year 1400; and has been noted in several works of geography. The smoke may sometimes be seen at the distance of a league; and at night, especially during rain or snow, the flame appears red, yellow, or blue.

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[*] Mem. de l' ac. des Sc. 1781, p. 169. The style is embarrassed and obscure.

M. Morand has given a curious list of the substances affected by fire, being chiefly indurated clay, or porcelain jasper; slate of a brick red, often with impressions of vegetables as usual in coal-mines; dross from oxyds of iron; the dead rock of the Germans, or red sand-stone; slate reduced to impalpable powder; a kind of tufo composed of powder and sand; besides sulphur, alum, and ammoniac.

His account of the hill of Fontaynes, where the coal-mines took fire about the year 1763, is curious, and may give the reader a complete idea of a fumavol or volcanello in its greatest activity.

Hill of Fontaynes.

" The hill of Fontaynes, situated near Cahuac, is surmounted by two adjacent houses, forming the hamlet of Fontaynes, in the parish of Albin; the lower house belongs to *Muratels*, and the upper to a person named *Capelle*, proprietor of the mountain. The fire having destroyed his plantation of chesnuts; and his coal-mine, which was of the first quality; now threatens his house*; and occupies a surface of earth with a slope towards the north or north-west; its extent may be in length from east to west, about 65 fathoms, and in breadth, from north to south, 56 fathoms.

Appearance. "All the surface on the side towards Fontaynes, variously coloured, but more particularly with red, visibly burnt, no longer regularly following the slope of the mountain, is entirely broken, deranged, furrowed in clefts, in crevices, in trenches or a kind of small ravines, which announce an interior and pretty deep convulsion; and, by its appearance, it might be supposed to have been lately shaken and overturned. In some places it is hollowed into pits, in others it is lifted up in small eminences or little hills, formed, some of masses of large cinders, and of ashes, the remains of substances which have escaped calcination: others of stones, sometimes in large detached pieces. The variegated colours of these fragments belong to those which are known to be the result of calcination, more or less acting on earths and argillaceous or schistose rocks, especially of a ferruginous nature. This dry and disordered surface presents, particularly towards the eastern side, against which the smoke is oftenest driven, the most unequivocal characters of the completest sterility, no kind of plant being to be found there, not the least verdure.

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* "The accident about to be described is but of late origin, it dates from the grant of 1763, before which the grantees, who at Sudalia and Bouquiés only worked small coal for the forges, caused all the proprietor's mines to be shut up, and would only allow the inhabitants of the country, to furnish themselves with what coal they wanted from the mine of Fontaynes. It is said, that the considerable number of purchasers not allowing time to raise the small coal, the inhabitants taking none but the large blocks for their use, the small coal fermented and took fire."

Desolate.

" Covered twelve years ago, as well as all the neighbouring quarter, with magnificent chesnut walks of the first quality, a second resource for the country after coal, there remains no longer any trace of these trees, except on the lower borders of the mountain, even in the part which is inflamed; where is perceived, nearly opposite Capelle's house, a single stump, still adhering to a portion of the trunk above ground. This stump and the trunk, hollowed and mined by the subterranean heat, are, actually, only a mishapen mass, which, seen from the house, is distinguished by its coal-black colour, and the smoke which issues from it, as from a vent spouting from the earth.

Smoke.

" From all points of the surface of this mountain, even from those where neither crevice nor dislocation is perceived, through ashes, earths, stones, which seem lifted up, gusts of smoke more or less dense escape, as from under the extinguished and smoking remains of a great conflagration. This smoke, according to the wind, disperses by spreading itself over all the surface, or, in calm weather, rises in clouds more than 100 feet high, and is then sometimes seen at a great distance.

"A just idea may be formed of the burning mass, and of the degree of heat of the burning mine of Fontaynes, at the time that I was there, by the following observation. I was travelling towards Albin, coming from Villeneuve-la-Cumade; on my arrival at Montmajet, three hours from Fontaynes, I had observed this smoke; and my guide, from the place we had just left, telling me he was no longer certain of the way, I perceived it, and he sought it; I made him observe the smoke of the hill of Fontaynes, where he had never been, and with which he was not in the least acquainted.

Vapour. "In short, another circumstance sensibly strikes the throat, the smelling, and the eyes; it is the moist and earthy vapour at times sensibly sulphureous, at some places even suffocating; the disagreeableness of which is sometimes perceived, even on approaching the vicinity of Fontaynes.

Fire.

"In order to furnish myself with an exact and complete picture of all the parts of this phenomenon, which had drawn me thither, the circumstances I have just related were the only ones, to which I confined my first inspection. For that purpose, I remained for some time at the place where I arrived coming from Albin; it was directly on the crest of the mountain, above its inflamed part, bordering even on the brink of the soil where its degradation is at present marked. What there most astonished me was, three kinds of luminous globes (I describe them as they appeared to me), at different distances from one another, in the lower part of the mountain, nearly of the same size as the moon appears when at the full, of a bright red, or such as the fire in a forge appears, at the farther end of a smithy when seen from a clear and distant place.

"I did not know what it was; I nevertheless attentively observed these brilliant points, which I was desired to consider. Do you see the fire? said they. The stones, or any thing found at hand, which my guide, and those who were with us at the time, amused themselves with throwing towards the place where I perceived these bodies of light, explained to me, what I had neither been able to judge of nor define: they were so many apertures, which served as chimneys to the quiet passage of a bright and lively flame, sheltered from the wind. The edges, or exterior coat of these funnels, reddened by the fire, so as to be blended in colour with the flame, to which they served as conduits, and which was not at first perceptible, produced that effect of light of which I have endeavoured to describe the first appearance. When the stones or wood which had been thrown towards these burning mouths, reached them, then their coats, breaking and falling into the flame, agitated the fire, causing ejections of a reddish hue, to a height and of a volume proportioned to the derangement caused in the furnace; exactly as it occurs, on a small scale, in the furnace of a blacksmith, when he stirs the fire.

"If the pieces of the trunks of trees, thrown on these funnels, were not carried *into the fire*, with the crust of the apertures, they would instantly be seen to take fire, or be immediately reduced to charcoal.

"In other places, towards the top of the hill where I stood, and more within my view, the fire likewise appeared in all its force, but under a different aspect, and otherwise varied and repeated.

"Generally the trace is distinguished by a light, accompanied by a flame, fluttering from time to time on the surface, from a prodigious

Crevices.

number of little crevices, rather indented, which extend, in a serpentine direction, to a greater or less distance. These little crevices are themselves distinguished by a constant trembling, perceptible on their edges; the playing of the flame, joined to the continual derangement of the edges of the crevices, which falls in a fine powder in the interior of the clefts, giving them a particular motion, which cannot be better compared than to a kind of twinkling.

"In other parts the fire, confined in a kind of open ravines which are very numerous, struggles against the wind, when it blows in the direction of those trenches; and forms, to the sight, a real stream of flame.

"By sounding the earth with my cane, to avoid those places which were too hot, and regulating my steps by the wind, so that the smoke and suffocating exhalations of hot, humid, and sulphureous vapours, were driven before me, I had the satisfaction of approaching and examining at my ease, among others, a very large crevice, which, at that time, happened to be burning; its winding, broad, and elongated mouth, was as if enamelled on its exterior edges, by volatilisations of different colours, and of the greatest delicacy, which from time to time fell into the fire.

"On the kind of ashes which formed the soil adjoining this ravine of fire, some substances collected in tolerably large heaps, boiled up, having the appearance of a brilliant metallisation, coloured like that kind of copper called *rosette*. However difficult the access to those places where I remarked these frothy scorifications, I contrived, with my cane, to get by a little at a time, from the hottest parts, some fine pieces, to bring them within reach, and to take them away when perfectly cooled.

" The direction of the wind, then corresponding with the aperture of this magnificent precipice, was very favourable to enable the eye to examine the extent of the gulf. The external air, agitated by the wind, penetrated into it, superficially acting on the flame, and by directing it like a wave, to the other extremity of the burning ravine, where it became turbulent, and roaring, even in the interior*, afforded the facility of observing a deep and void space, a superb fire, gentle and quiet in one part, undulating in another, presenting only a bright red, such as is perceivable in a glass-house.

" The idea which suggested itself at the sight of this object, of diversifying it, of changing the action of the fire, by throwing different things into the precipice, which sometimes seemed lost in an instant, afforded a kind of amusement, not unworthy a naturalist. Stones thrown bounding into this furnace, produced flaming eruptions with sparkling, even with a detonation, and created as it were little tempests, which gave a kind of diversion, which might be renewed as often as the shock repeated in the chambers of fire had neither destroyed nor overwhelmed them. If it was possible to approach these furnaces with safety, and without danger throw in large masses of any substance whatever, so as suddenly to compress the fire within, there is no doubt, but one would see a real brisk explosion*.

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* " Which brought to my recollection, what is said by the inhabitants in the neighbourhood of the plain of Dysert Moor, in Scotland; they pretend that, at certain times, they hear murmurings and whistlings in the holes and caverns. *Art d'exploiter les mines de charbon*, p. 36."

"The singularity of the sight, of which I have endeavoured to give a sketch, would completely satisfy the most indifferent traveller; it was new to me, and excited my curiosity on all points. It may well be supposed, that I did not confine myself to this idle inspection; in traversing with an uncertain step this smoking and burning surface, which often obliged me to turn from one part to another; in walking on this demolition of substances, to admire, as near as possible, the different apertures of fire, which I was accustomed to distinguish; I fully perceived that those confused remains, deserved a separate and detailed examination: their different tints of white, yellow, yellowish, violet, greenish, or other colours that they have acquired according to their nature, according to the duration or degree of the fire, made them already remarkable.

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* "That related by M. l'abbé Marie, probably had no other cause than the detachment of a considerable part of the earth within. M. Laurens, curate of Albin, informed me, that in September last, this mountain in the night had made a considerable explosion. The noise which accompanied it, was like that of a cannon, the ground of the vicinity, to a considerable distance, was next morning found covered with stones thrown up by this eruption; the quantity was observed, and was estimated at 200 cart loads. The surface of the hill also showed by its alteration, the conflict within; all which was caused by a current of water, which had been injudiciously introduced, with a view to extinguish the burning of the mountain."

Products. "They are all either calcareous, or vitrifiable: the greater part resemble baked bricks, some are whitened, calcined, reduced to lime, and are changed into a kind of red pumice, or bear other marks of scorification in different degrees, sometimes with mixtures of stones more or less altered, as veined tufos, formed of ashes, and *lapillo* agglutinated together. Several of these stones, and in great numbers, are visibly and abundantly, either impregnated, or incrusted with salts and sulphurs. Here stones of different sizes, cover thick beds of ashes, reduced by the strength and duration of the fire, to an impalpable powder, still burning in certain places. These ashes, if they may be called so, heaped sometimes in sinking hollows, form very dangerous spots; a stick may be thrust into them with the greatest ease; in going over them, one may sink to one's knees: I myself found, that, besides the great heat which is concentrated in them, it was no little trouble to get out of them.

"The liveliness with which the fire shows itself, towards the east and the south of the hill, where the trees split at 30 fathoms' distance, does not permit much detailed observation, otherwise than as relates, either to the fiery spectacle of a considerable surface of earth, or to the aspect of a confused and extraordinary subversion. One cannot approach every spot one would wish. In some, at the bottom of the burning part, the heat is sufferable; the neighbouring inhabitants roast their chesnuts in it; even rabbits like to burrow in it, and, although the season when I was there was extremely hot, I have seen some of those animals driven from places contiguous to the burning soil. On approaching the centre of the mountain, the superficial heat becomes stronger; besides, this burning and moving earth, in some places, will not allow you to remain any time; either the stones give way under the feet, and are buried in the ashes which they cover; or the heat which is felt through the boots, becomes insupportable.

"One is then obliged every moment to move forward or return against one's will, from the way one would wish to go. If the naturalist would observe these objects near and in their place, he is not always at liberty to satisfy himself, the suffocating smoke sometimes preventing him from stooping as much as would be necessary. The day I was at Fontaynes, the wind was favourable, as I have said; it prevented the smoke from rising, and, at the same time, drove it in a certain direction. But it often happens that the heat of the fire will not allow the traveller with impunity to pick up calcined stones, or other substances, which he may think worth examination.

"This burning heat of the hill of Fontaynes, seems to gain towards the east and south; on the opposite side where the fire recedes, grass grows; and corn and rye are sown within four or five fathoms of the conflagration."

SUPPLEMENT.

VEINSTONES.

VEINSTONES.

THESE stones have, in cabinets, been often confounded with rocks, from which they should in general be carefully distinguished. They are called veinstones, because they are found in the veins, either metallic or barren, which traverse many mountains.

Name.

The reader who desires complete information concerning those veins, one of the most important topics in the science, is referred to the elaborate work of Werner*. A few general ideas will be sufficient for the present design.

Werner's account.

Most mountains consist of stratified rocks, by the Germans called *flœtze;* and the beds are often intersected, almost at right angles, by what are called *veins*, of more or less length, depth, and thickness; sometimes metallic, and sometimes of a rocky substance; but dissimilar from other parts of the mountain. Oppel, formerly president of the Council of Mines in Saxony, has informed us that the mere fissures of rocks are commonly very narrow; while a vein, on the contrary, may be of prodigious extent, and is always filled with a substance different from that of the mountain. He was the first, according to Werner, who established the essential difference between veins and *flœtze*, or beds, which may be metallic and contain a heterogenous substance, yet must not be called veins, as they follow the direction of the other strata.

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* Nouvelle Theorie de la formation des Filons. Traduite par Daubuisson. Paris, 1802, 8vo.

Arrects. Many primitive mountains consist of what have been called, with great impropriety, vertical strata or beds; while the latter words of themselves imply a horizontal position. The terms *arrects* or *uprights* have been here proposed and adopted, in order to obviate a solecism long regretted by writers on mineralogy. Such mountains consisting of arrects, are often intersected by veins, which cut these arrects in an opposite direction.

Origin. It seems a probable opinion that many veins of great extent may have been produced by the desiccation of the globe, after the retreat of the primeval waters; while others may be owing to the subsidence of parts of mountains resting on an irregular nucleus. Extent. At Uspallata, in the Andes of Chili, there is a vein of silver, which has been traced to the enormous length of 90 miles; but by many has been supposed to extend to Potosi, that is 840 geographical miles. The grand vein is always nine feet in thickness; but on both sides numerous veins branch off, which may be said to penetrate in all directions a chain of mountains 30 miles in breadth[*]. From this surprising example, an idea may be formed of the extent of some veins, which have continued to be richly productive after the labours of many centuries.

Mines.

In conducting their subterranean operations, the miners use a kind of compass, divided into twice twelve hours; 12 and 12 being N. and S. while 6 and 6 are E. and W.[†] This is used to estimate the *direction* of the vein; while its *inclination* is measured by the plummet. The *dip* is often confounded with the inclination, but seems more properly to imply the general declination, taken in the line or direction of the vein, than the lateral inclination or obliquity. Thus if a book be held obliquely, the back will show the direction of the vein, which is seldom strictly horizontal, but dips at one extremity, while at the other it is salient; or, in the language of miners, *bassets out*, or *rises to the day*. The width of the back shows the thickness of the vein; while the sides mark the declination from the vertical through the 90 degrees to the horizon. But a little sketch and explanation, given in the appendix, will explain this subject better than any verbal description.

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[*] Molina, Ist. Nat. del Chili.

[†] Invented by the Germans, the fathers of modern mineralogy. The silver mines in the Hartz were discovered A. D. 968. Those of Saxony, by a Hartz miner, about A. D. 1180.

The rock which covers the vein, is called the *roof;* and the bottom is called the *sole.* They are also called the *hanger* and the *ledger.* The English miners also use the word *hade,* to denote the inclination: and *rake vein,* to denote the perpendicular, while the *pipe vein* approaches the horizontal. The veinstones are sometimes called *riders:* and the German word *loch* is retained for a cavity or empty space.

Salbands. The vein rarely coalesces with the rock, but is separated from it on both sides by what are called the *salbands,* which, like walls, contain the mineral: and often by the *skirts,* in German *besteg,* which are small layers of earthy matter, commonly argillaceous, lying between the salbands and the rock. In the veins themselves the ores are accompanied with their *gangarts* of quartz, barytes, calcareous spar, &c.* There are also *cavities,* which in powerful veins are of proportional extent, so as to appear like chambers, studded all over with *druses,* or groups of beautiful ores and

Cavities.

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* See Brongniart, ii. 382.

crystals, which, when enlightened by torches, exceed all the ideas of oriental magnificence, and seem the chosen abodes of the fairies of the mine; a race whose existence was anciently credited in all mineral countries.

These cavities are often found where the vein is most powerful, and the sides are covered with depositions of various periods, whence Werner adduces them in support of his theory, that the veins were once empty, and were filled from above; especially as the crystals are covered on that side with little crystals of pyrites, magnetic iron, and galena, which, by his doctrine, may have distilled from above. This is opposed by the theory of Trebra, who for thirty years superintended the mines of the Hartz, and who affirms that metallic veins are formed by the fermentation and exaltation of vapours, which we now call gases; and which operate as it were a kind of life in the interior of the earth, perpetually decomposing and transmuting mineral substances*. He would perhaps have inferred that, though the gases rose from beneath, they were congealed, as in distillery, by the superior cold, and then let fall their depositions. Veins sometimes cross each other in different directions; and it seems clear that those

Trebra's idea.

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* See his curious work on the Interior of Mountains, a folio volume translated into French, by Dietrich.

Ancient and modern veins.

which extend across the others must be the most modern; the ancient having been broken by a later subsidence of the mountain. Werner informs us, that in the mining district of Freyberg there are two kinds of veins, of very different descriptions. One kind consists of those which are called northern and southern, that is, they run from nine to three hours, according to the miners' compass, or between the north-west and the north-east. They yield galena, black blende, pyrites, either coppery, arsenical, or common; quartz, and brown spar. The second kind of veins, always traversing the first, and never traversed by them, contains galena with a little radiated pyrites, barytes, fluor, and quartz. This extends betwixt the sixth and ninth hour. One district contains veins of tin and of silver, the former being always traversed by the latter. The direction of the first is chiefly between six and nine hours, while that of the last is between nine and three.

Accidences.

In a more immediate consideration of the veins themselves, it may be observed that they have sometimes neither skirts nor salbands, but pass into the rock itself, which in that case is often somewhat decomposed. Werner says, that this particularly happens when veins, loaded with quartz and hornblende, occur in a quartzy gneiss; and sometimes only in particular parts, while the others are divided from the rock by the salband, or by the besteg of clay. The ore passing into the chinks of the rock, sometimes for a few inches, never more than a yard, is always in a leafy or superficial form. In different mining districts of Germany, several silver ores are wrought in the decomposed gneiss of the rock adjacent to the salbands of the mine; and at Kongsberg in Norway, native silver appears in gneiss, mica-slate, and hornblende. Copper, galena, and even tin, sometimes assume the same appearance.

Sometimes fragments of the rock have dropped into the vein, and been enveloped in its substance. But Werner seems to elude a great difficulty, the similar appearance of masses of mineral, by the French called *poches* or pockets, which have been accidentally discovered at detached and wide intervals, in the solid body of the rock.

Stone veins.

It must not be conceived that all veins are metalliferous. Many, on the contrary, disappoint the hopes of the miner, and are found to consist entirely of stone. Werner mentions veins of granite, porphyry, limestone, basalt, wacken, and grunstein. He adds, that in some parts of Saxony veins are found of small-grained granite, in a rock of mica-slate, and these veins are traversed and deranged by veins of silver, which proves that the granitic veins are more ancient. In other districts

Veins of granite.

appear veins of porphyry and of trap, or basaltin. Veins of wacken are particularly frequent in the metallic mountains of Saxony; they traverse all the other metallic veins, and are of course of a more modern formation. Veins of grunstein appear near Bautzen. In the mountains of Schneeberg and Hartenstein, there are veins of clay-slate. In the Pyrenees, Duhamel observed, not far from the peak of Oncet, what he calls a bed of granite, about nine inches thick, enclosed between two beds of trap, which were themselves enclosed between two beds of limestone. "We observed that the inferior bed of trap disappeared, terminating in the form of a wedge, so that the granite afterwards reposed on the limestone. We also observed that the latter is often penetrated by threads of granite which appear on its surface, in the zigzag form; and the granite also assumes the form of nodules, being in all these circumstances firmly adherent to the rock, which supports or encloses it, forming with it a continuous body; and there is every reason to believe that it never penetrates to much depth. This granite is in a great part composed of plates of felspar, more or less mingled with crystals of black schorl. The mica and the quartz are thinly scattered. The same district offered another phenomenon: we perceived many real veins of granite, about an inch in thickness, traversing diametrically the mass of the rock."*

It appears, from the conclusion, that the Pic du Midi, the chief object of these observations, is entirely composed of primitive rocks, in distinct and continued beds, or properly arrects, inclined from 60 to 80°; the superior beds, immediately covering the limestone, being gneiss and garnet-rock; above which are numerous alternating beds or arrects of limestone, trap, and sometimes of granite. The disposition of the trap is remarkable, as it often affects, between two level beds of limestone, folds either single or multiplied, and of the strangest appearance. The granite of the superior beds or arrects presents many features, as a vein, as a bed, and as a constituent part of many calcareous rocks; but, in the latter case, it is only found on the surface, as if it had been deposited soon after the compaction of the calcareous molecules.

Veins of granite, composed of quartz, felspar, and white mica, have also been observed by Besson, in the Limosin, in a clay slate. They are on a plain which has been tilled; and he observed no granitic rock in the neighbourhood. This granite is in very large and irregular grains; a circumstance also remarked by Dolomieu, who says that such granites differ from those of the *mountains*, as the grains are larger, the substances less *inter*woven and coherent, while each has a greater tendency to regular crystallisation. But, on the other hand, Charpentier observed, in various parts of Saxony, veins of granite in mountains of gneiss; the granite consisting of white quartz in very small grains, mica in fine particles, while the felspar was scarcely distinguishable from the quartz*.

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* Jour. des Mines, iv. 751. 761.

Slips. The *slips* or *dykes* found in coal mines, may also be classed among the veins of stone. They chiefly consist, as already mentioned, of basaltin and basalton, clay-rock, and argillaceous sandstone.

But the denomination of veinstones has been more strictly confined to the substances found in metallic veins, which, from their confined *nature*, perhaps more properly belong to lithology; whence only a few observations are here offered, by way of supplement to a treatise on rocks; as they often perplex the learner, and sometimes even the adept, by combinations which do not occur in mountain masses. A short account of these veinstones, given by an honest practical miner, may not be unacceptable. "What I call veinstone, Account by Williams.

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* Ib. No. 16, p. 22.

is a compound mineral concretion of various colours, appearances, and degrees of hardness, and not unfrequently of various colours in the same mass, though white often prevails. This compounded stony concretion is called by miners a *rider*, perhaps from its riding the vein, or separating it longitudinally into two or more divisions. This mineral stone is hard and heavy, sometimes compact and solid, but frequently cracked and cavernous, rising in irregular and mishapen masses, and generally exceeding hard. A rider frequently contains a variety of different substances or species, as well as different colours, in the same mass, such as spar, quartz, fragments of the rocks near the vein, sometimes pyrites, and often ore in grains and flowers, and sometimes different ores, as lead, copper, &c. in the same mass, and all these strongly coagulated or concreted together by a whitish or a brownish-white substance, resembling quartz and agate, which seems to have enveloped the several articles in the composition when the whole was in a fluid state. I call this veinstone, as I think the term should be the most intelligible to naturalists, it being always found in veins, upon the superficies of them, and in fragments and masses lying about upon the face of the ground, which have slidden, or been forced off, the superficies of veins. But the veinstone does not always contain so great a variety in its composition. It is often pretty white, and appears like a quartzy concretion of a porous, or rather a cavernous texture; and the inside of the caverns, though small, frequently contains a brownish ferruginous soft soil of a snuffy appearance; and sometimes the insides of these small caverns are finely lined with great numbers of pointed or prismatical crystals, generally exceeding beautiful, and sparkling like diamonds. But all the veinstones, or riders, are not white nor whitish. In many places they are of a brown, or a reddish-brown, and several other colours; but the whitish colour most commonly prevails. Strong wide veins often contain a large rib of this veinstone betwixt the sides, several feet thick; but in all degrees of thickness, from a few inches up to several feet, I have seen strong bold veins carry such a rib or body of this stone as to appear in a ridge above the surface of the ground a great way, the superficies of the native rock being withered, and wasted away from both sides of it."*

This description clearly applies to quartz: and he afterwards proceeds to mention that the chief spars, found in mineral veins, are the calcareous and cauk-spar, since called barytes. The soft mineral soils found in veins, are a white, or whitish bole; a red unctuous ferruginous clay; with other kinds and colours, especially that called *gur* by the Germans, of various tints of brown, and resembling rappee, and sometimes Spanish snuff. The *peach* of the Cornish miners, chlorite, or green bole, is also frequent. Gur.

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* Williams, Min. King. i. 284.

From the account which Williams gives of the *rider*, in the very imperfect mineralogical language of that period, it would appear that he means to indicate a vein of ferruginous quartz, generally found to accompany metallic ores. By his description it is very rough and irregular, and full of little cavities, containing a ferruginous powder like snuff. The whitest parts have some resemblance to what is called a *bur-stone*, chiefly used for mill-stones, their irregular surface serving the purpose of trituration: but the rider generally contains heterogenous substances, as ores, pyrites, spar, fluor, &c.* It seems often to approach keralite, or the hornstein of the Germans, which sometimes even forms mountains, replete with silver and other ores. Rider.

It would seem that the cavities containing druses of small crystals, chiefly occur in the purer portions of the rock; and his account of this beautiful kind of veinstones merits transcription.

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* Will. i. 379.

Lochs.

"Most of the mineral spars are frequently found shot into prismatical, cubic hexagonals, or other figures. These figured crystals are generally transparent, and very beautiful. It is a great curiosity to behold the inside of some of the large cavities in which they are formed. These open caverns are frequently met with in hard mineral veins, and they are generally called by miners *lochs*, or loch holes.

"The miners know nothing of these cavernous vacuities until they strike into them, as they advance in working; and they are of various dimensions, from the bigness of a nut, up to room enough for three or four men to turn themselves in them.

"The magnitude of these caverns is generally in some proportion to the capacity of the veins in which they are found; and the insides of them frequently exhibit all the variety, beauty, and splendour of the most curious grotto-work.

"There is commonly a hard concreted stony crust, called *druse*, adhering to the inside of the cavity; out of which, as out of a root, an innumerable multitude of short prismatical crystals are shot, which sparkle like a thousand diamonds with the candle, or when brought up to the sun. Between these clusters of mock diamonds, and sticking to them promiscuously, there are often ore, pyrites, and spar, shot also into prismatical, cubic, and other figures; and besides these, clusters of grotesque figures which grow out of one another, and are as it were piled upon one another. The whole inside of the cavern is sometimes most magnificently adorned with the most wildly grotesque figures, which grow upon and branch out of one another, in a manner not to be described; and with all the gay and splendid colours of polished gold, of the rainbow, and of the peacock's tail, and all these blended together, and the masses reflecting all the beauty of such an assemblage of gaudy colours. But it may be remarked, that these caverns are never so magnificent and glorious but when there is less or more of yellow copper ore, or of the pyrites in them: as these ores are found to produce, in hard veins, the most beautiful colours in the world. An eminent instance, in proof of this assertion, is to be seen in the copper veins in the parish of Colvend, in Galloway.

"These mineral loughs, or caverns, are the great source of materials for grotto work; and the specimens collected from the mines are generally the most showy dazzling articles in the whole arrangement of the splendid grotto."*

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* Will. i. 288.

From the plain details of this honest miner, it also appears that the rider often arises like a wall in the middle of the vein, the ore being found on either side; while sometimes, on the contrary, the ore is in the middle, and the rider on each side; or, to use the mining language, the *hanger* and *leger*, the *hanging* or upper side, and the *hading* or lower side; for the *hade*, *slope*, or *inclination* of the vein is chiefly estimated by miners from the lower side, while the *direction* is by them called the *bearing* of the vein. The back of the vein is also called *the basset*. What the Germans call the *besteg*, is described by Williams as a thin seam of clay, by the miners called a *steeking*. He has observed two rich veins of lead-ore, on the sides of a rider of whinstone or basalt. Some veins have little or no rider, but only ore and spar*.

Miners' terms.

Another substance, not uncommon in veins, is a diamictonic combination of silex and iron; for there are few mines in which iron does not accompany the other metals.

Silex often modern.

This silex must, according to the doctrine of Werner, be often of recent formation. But stalactites of silex may be said to be daily formed in the deepest gallery of the mines of Cremnitz; and are remarkable, when they have attained several inches of length, by their extreme flexibility, while calcareous stalactites are broken with the slightest effort*. In his account of his own cabinet, Trebra mentions that, in 1782, a peasant digging his garden in the village of Seppenrode, dependent on the bishopric of Munster, found a grey flint, about nine inches in length by four in breadth, having nothing particular in its exterior appearance; but having broke it for his tinder-box, he found within a cylindrical cavity, containing twenty little pieces of silver, which appeared to have been tied with a thread, of which some vestiges were apparent. The cavity was exactly moulded on this little pile of coins, and the inside was black; but the most surprising circumstance is, that the most ancient of these coins are only of the sixteenth century. Trebra's cabinet contained a piece of this flint, and one of the coins presented to him by Prince Gallitzin, with an authentic certificate of the circumstances above-mentioned†. Mr. Kirwan has another example of coins found in flint‡.

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* Ib. 269, 276, 301, 351, 377, 379.

In his large work on the interior of mountains,

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* Journ. des Mines, No. 23, p. 76.

† Ibid. p. 75.

‡ Geol. Ess. 447, where he briefly quotes Schneider, Top. Min. 114, for 126 silver coins found in flints at Grinoc in Denmark, and an iron nail at Potsdam.

Trebra had before stated a fact more applicable to the present subject, and observed by himself in the mine called Dreyweiber, in the district of Marienberg. In 1777, on enlarging and opening that mine, which had been under water for two hundred years, four standard posts were found, forming part of the fabric of an ancient pit. The lower ends of these posts were buried in a new vein, consisting of barytes, of a flesh colour, and of green fluor. Moreover, the extremities of these pieces of wood were covered with a black and brown ferruginous matter, containing much vitreous silver ore, and native silver in extremely thin leaves*. From these and other examples, it may be inferred that substances, reputed the most primeval, are in fact daily produced by nature; and that the same Power which has impressed such wonderful and perpetual motion on the planetary bodies, also animates, so to speak, their interior; where to suppose absolute death and inertion, would be to contradict all the other phenomena.

Age of vein-stones.

According to Werner, the most ancient veins present felspar, schorl, topaz, and beryl. Those which yield grey and green mica, are also very ancient; while the calcareous stones appear more modern; appatite and some fluors being the oldest of this description. Barytes seems one of the newest substances which appear in veins. Quartz, if not the most ancient, appears to be of all ages; while wacken and basalt seem to be recent. Trebra has observed, that certain gangarts seem more generally to be found in certain kinds of rock. Quartz and barytes are more frequently found in granite, than calcareous spar. Porphyry also contains much quartz, little barytes, still less calcareous spar, and almost never fluor; but there are gangarts of chalcedony and jasper, which are seldom found in granite and gneiss. In argillaceous mountains the prevailing gangart is calcareous spar, while barytes and quartz are rare. In calcareous mountains quartz seldom occurs, while calcareous spar, barytes, and fluor, are abundant.

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* Jour. des Mines, v. 721.

In the mines of Giromagny, in Alsace, the chief gangarts are quartz, trap, fluor; the rock being almost universally what was called petrosilex, more probably hornstein than felsite. The *direction* of the veins is very various; and those that are north and south sometimes have their *inclination* to the east, sometimes to the west*. Among veinstones must also be reckoned bricias, composed of fragments of the mass of the veins, and alleged by Werner, among his arguments, that the veins were filled from above. *Such* is a bricia, consisting of little fragments of barytes in a cement of bluish grey fluor. But he particularly instances the celebrated bricia of agate, found at Schlotwitz near Kunersdorff. This singular **Agate bricia.** and beautiful stone consists of large and small fragments of a fine ribon agate, which forms a powerful vein in that spot; the fragments being joined by a cement of amethyst and quartz. In the polished specimens there are fragments, of which the parts correspond so exactly, that it is evident that they must have dropped from the same portion of the vein.

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* See the table, Journ. des Mines, iv. 291.

Among singular veinstones may also be classed **Pebbles.** pebbles. Werner mentions that a vein of pebbles of gneiss, fourteen inches in thickness, was found at the depth of 180 fathoms. In Hessia, a vein of cobalt, almost vertical, was traversed by another vein consisting almost entirely of sand and gravel. At Chalanches in Dauphiny, several veins are entirely filled with rolled pebbles. But one of the most remarkable examples is reported by M. Duhamel, in his Subterranean Geometry. The principal vein of the mine of lead containing silver, at Huelgoat in Lower Brittany, is accompanied, as well on the roof as on the sole, with ten or twelve feet in thickness of rolled stones or pebbles, of various sizes, either round or oblong; the greatest number being of quartz, like those found on the shores of the sea, and in the beds of rivers; while the intervals are filled with a white earth, sometimes ochry. The works are 500 feet under the mountain, and the inclination of the vein is from 60 to 70 degrees. Duhamel adds, that the disposition of the vein admits no doubt that it has been formed after the banks of pebbles, which serve it as walls: and that it may be inferred that the two banks of pebbles were at first united, and afterwards rent and filled with this vein. But may it not be simply a pudding-stone, of which the cement is decomposed, a common effect of metallic veins*? Nor is it wholly inconceivable that the vast receptacle of subterranean waters, known to exist in many parts of the globe, may contain extensive beds of pebbles, which may be forced into any cavities by the prodigious power of earthquakes, or other phenomena, occasioned by the extreme force of steam, vapours, and gases.

Among the most remarkable veinstones must Petrifactions.
also be classed petrifactions, which have unex-

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* Daub. Theorie de Werner, 83. Near Greenock in Scotland, ore is found in pudding-stone. Will. i. 268.

pectedly been found at great depths. Born assures us that petrified porpites (a kind of mollusk), have been repeatedly found in a mine of Hungary, at the depth of 89 fathoms, or 534 feet. Fichtel has also observed, in his work on the Carpathian mountains, that in the mines of Hungary has been found a fungite as large as a nut, the parallel leaves containing a little ball enchased in the interior, the substance being now spathose iron, of a deep brown; and it rests on crystallised quartz, covering the decomposed porphyry, called *saxum metalliferum* by Born, and here styled bornite, in honour of that great mineralogist. There was also found a bivalve shell, of the size of a filbert, likewise placed on quartz and bornite. The two valves were separated from each other, but entire. Fichtel adds, that he has in his possession a cochlite, or sea-snail, found in a vein of gold in Transilvania*. Might not even these relics arise from subterranean waters?

Decomposed rocks. Finally, among veinstones may also be classed those decomposed rocks, generally occurring in the proximity of metallic veins, and which having a more immediate relation to the present work, must be treated with some detail.

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* Werner, Theorie, 89, 280.

Werner has informed us that, in many veins, the rock on both sides, or, in the miners' language, the *roof* and the *sole*, the *hanger* and the *leger*, is altered and decomposed. This accident chiefly takes place in mountains of granitel, gneiss, mica slate, common slate, and porphyry. But this decomposition seldom extends to more than one of the constituent elements of the rock; for the quartz remains entire; while commonly the felspar, often the mica, and very often the hornblende, are decayed; the potash of the one, and the iron of the others, being very liable to decomposition. This alteration sometimes extends a considerable way, even a fathom; and is not always apparent along the vein, but chiefly in those parts where the mineral abounds with sulphur. In the pursuit of a barren vein, when this decomposition begins to appear, it may be concluded that ore is not far distant.

This change Werner ascribes to acids in the dissolution that formed the vein; and supposes that the felspar is changed into kaolin, or white clay, by the carbonic acid; and he gives examples of gneiss and granite thus decomposed. He also supposes that the sulphuric acid may affect the mica and hornblende, and convert them into that green bole or lithomarga, which was originally called gneiss by the Saxon miners, before the term was transferred to the entire rock now so denominated.

Daubuisson, in his able translation of Werner's work on Veins, has given two remarkable examples of the decomposition of granite, which may best be explained in his own words*.

"Near Bautzen, in Lusatia, in a hollow way, there is a cut made into a granitic soil, which is a mere assemblage of balls of granite, mostly a fathom in diameter; while the interstices are of a granite, decomposed to such a degree that the spot resembles a gravel-pit. The balls are covered with envelopes, consisting of many layers of granite, also falling into decay. I observed one ball which had thirteen of these envelopes, each nearly an inch in thickness, and the more decomposed as they were distant from the *kernel*. A ball detached from the mountain, having split in the middle, afforded me an opportunity of observing the nature and structure of that kernel, which consists of a fair solid granite, of a hardness and freshness of colour, demonstrating that it has suffered no alteration; nor does it present any fissure, nor any lineament of a structure in concentric layers. For these circumstances I shall thus account. The granitic rock being divided into masses by horizontal and vertical fissures, as most granites are, the decomposition arising from the atmosphere would first affect the angles and sides, and reduce them into that kind of gravel of which we have spoken, while the masses of course assume the form of balls. The decomposition, afterwards penetrating gradually into their interior, would successively relax the tissue, and thus form concentric layers; while the inmost part would continue to preserve its solidity, thus forming the kernel. One of the effects of the decomposition has been the oxydation of the iron in the felspar, whence the red colour of the gravel, of the concentric layers, and all the decayed parts; while, in the kernel, the felspar is of a very fresh bluish white. This oxydation of iron, by the common influence of the atmosphere, is the cause of several appearances in rocks, particularly the sandstones. In one of the balls, which was on the surface of the earth, the upper hemisphere of layers was entirely wanting, the fresh and solid kernel being displayed; while beneath it was enveloped by the lower hemisphere of decomposed layers, the upper having been carried away by the winds, rains, and other meteoric influences. I report this fact as leading to the remark, that although certain masses, peaks, rocks, &c. which we see bare, always present a very hard substance, seeming to defy all decomposition; it is nevertheless subject to the destructive power of time, or more strictly speaking, of the elements; but in proportion as the particles of that surface are thus decomposed, they are washed away, so that we have always under our eyes the solid part, not yet affected by decomposition.

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* Theorie, 148.

"The second example which I shall state, appears at the Seiffenwerk of Steinbach, near Johangeorgenstadt in Saxony. When I was there, and in front of a mountain of granite, of which the surface was entirely decomposed, at the first glance I thought it was a mass of sand or gravel; but, on approaching, I perceived that the grains of quartz had the same colour and the same form as in the granite of the neighbourhood, and were disposed in the same manner, but in a felspar completely decomposed. This decomposition penetrated a great way into the rock, as I observed in passing into a gallery, where the granite did not appear firm till at the depth of several fathoms: and I am persuaded that in many places what is regarded as gravel, produced by alluvion and transference, is only decomposed granite in its original situation; and that under this pretended gravel would be found the solid rock.

"I shall not here enlarge on the destructive power of the elements, but reserve the subject for another work; where I shall show, by a series of facts, its consequences in granites, sandstones, basalts, and almost all the rocks. I shall show that acting constantly, and without interruption, during a long series of ages, it must have produced very great effects on the solid crust of our globe; and has strongly concurred in fashioning the inequalities, now observed on its surface. I shall with regret be obliged to combat the opinion of Dolomieu; the vivacity of whose imagination could not bear the slow and uniform progress, which experience shows to be that of nature. He said he could not believe that a rivulet should have scooped out large valleys: but I must observe that nature has time entirely at her disposition; and that a finite effect, produced an infinite number of times, is an effect infinitely great."

It is hoped that these observations will be sufficient to direct the student of nature in his attention to veinstones, which, whether in mountains or in cabinets, have often been confounded with rocks. In the latter, particularly, they have sometimes led mineralogists, and even geologists, to inexact and erroneous inferences. But, in the rapid advances of the science, the lamp of observation will soon dispel any obscurity; and when facts shall become sufficiently numerous, it is to be hoped that some future Newton may arise, to dispel the darkness and confusion which still prevail in many parts of the mineral kingdom.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

No. I. *On the ancient Manner of carving Granite.*

ZOEGA, p. 189, et seq.

[See the translation, Vol. I. p. 199.]

RELIQUUM est dicere . . . . de Barberino obelisco. Nempe ad eum scalpendum instrumenta quædam adhibita videntur quorum in magnis Obeliscis nullum deprehenditur vestigium. Quæ enim lineæ sunt rectæ, vel ad circuli segmentum curvatæ, non acuté incisæ sunt, neque profunditatem habent equalem: sed fundus concavus est; ipsi sulci in mediâ suâ parte profundiores, ad extremitates sensim extenuantur, donec paulatim evanescant. Nec desinunt puncto definito in eo loco, qui terminus est rei quam representandam sibi sumserat sculptor, sed exilior pars procurrit extra limites figuræ.

Unde clarum fit ejusmodi sulcos non factos esse stylo nec smyride laminâ cultriformi subactâ, sed serra aliquâ lunatâ, cui subjiciebatur smyris, et alterno motu incidebantur sulci. Sed in rectis lineis; ubi vero curvæ essent, serrâ etiam opus erat curvâ. Quoniam vero figuræ incavita te eminentes turgidiores sunt, et singulæ partes aliqua deformantur globositate, probabile fit eas teretro vel tubo formatas esse smyridis subsidio, licet ejus instrumenti vestigia non appareant, figurarum superficie fricando expolita . . . . . .

Universim in hujus classis operibus tempus lucrifacere studuerunt artifices; et serris, tuctris, atque frictione efficere, quæ in magnis obeliscis cœlo facta videntur, vel smyride laminæ subjecta . . . . .

6. Nostrates ubi granito figuram aliquam incidere volunt, primo loco exemplar ejus faciunt, è ferri laminâ subtili, quâ super plano saxo applicato ac velut agglutinata, assumpta altra lamina, brevi cultro simili, ea utuntur ad sulcum ducendum; ope smyridis circa exemplar supradictum. Sulco autem ad certam profunditatem impresso, exemplar auferunt, et spatium sulco definitum, acuto scalpro *(subbia)* comminuere incipiunt. Dein malleolo mucronato *(pungetto)* formare aggrediuntur figuram . . . . quam postea malleolo latiore *(martellino)* molliorem reddunt et læviorem. Quo facto smyride plumbo subactâ lævigant. Dein exiliora lineamenta partim scalpro cœlove adjiciunt, partim laminâ cultriformi et smyride. Postremo vero omnia expoliunt smyride minutissima quam *spoltriglia* vocant.

7. Del Rosso vestigia deprehendit *teretri* in Obelisco Heliopolitano; neque sine hoc instrumento characteres incidi posse in saxo granitico contendit: sed loqui videtur de re sibi non intellectâ. Nam communis *teretri* (teretron id. q. *trapano)* nullus usus sit in eo lapide, cum ferro sit ipse durior. Alterum vero *teretron,* quod *tubus* est *æneus,* smyride circumagendæ destinatur, licet commodum instrumentum, tamen minimè est necessarium nec nisi in profundis excavationibus eo uti solent nostrates.

No. II. *Illustrations of the ancient Marbles.*

WHITE. *Parian,* also called *Lychnites* and *Lygdis.*
Hymettian.

> "Non trabes Hymettiæ
> Premunt columnas ultima recisas
> Africa."
>
> *Hor.*

Pentelican.

Mylassian.

Proconnesian. Tomb of Mausolus. *Vitruv.*

Thasian.

Coralian from the river Coralius in Phrygia; also called Sangarion, from the river Sangarus; resembling ivory.

Phoenician, Tyrian, or Sidonian, from Libanus; used in the Temple of Solomon. *Josephus.*

Arabian. Diodorus says, that in weight and whiteness it exceeded the Parian.

Lesbian, greyish white (Palombino); also dark grey.

Conchites, white with shells.

BLACK. From *Tænarus* in Laconia.

> " Quidve domus prodest Phrygiis innixa columnis,
> Taenare sive tuis, sive Caryste tuis."
>
> *Tibull.*

> " Quod non Taenariis domus est mihi fulta columnis."
>
> *Propert.*

The green was from Mount Taygetus. The Crocian was probably white, as statues were formed of it.

Lydian. (Basanite.)*

GREEN. Of Mount Taygetus in *Laconia,* which extends through that country to Arcadia: *(verde antico.)*

> " Illic Taygeti virent metalla."
>
> *Mart.*

> " Et quod virenti fonte lavit Eurotas."
>
> *Id.*

> " ....Heic dura Laconum
> Saxa virent."
>
> *Sidon. Ap.*

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* The stone of Alabanda in Caria, black inclining to purple, was melted and used for glass (Pliny), so could not be a marble.

"Heic et Amyclæi cæsum de monte Lycurgi
Quod viret, et molles imitatur rupibus herbas."
Id.

"Herbosis quæ vernant marmora venis."
Id.

"............Post caute Laconum
Marmoris herbosi radians interviret ordo."
Id.

Procopius *de Æd.* compares it to emerald.

In a noted passage, Sidonius thus describes the chief marbles of antiquity:

"Hic lapis est de quinque locis, dans quinque colores,
Æthiopus, Phrygius, Parius, Poenus, Lacedæmon,
Purpureus, viridis, maculosus, eburnus, et albus."

African red, Phrygian spotted, Laconian green, Parian white, *Poenus* like ivory.

Carystian, green, veined and spotted, also called Euboean. As it was spotted, it is probably the *verd antique sanguine*, of a deep sea-green with little red and black spots. It was most probably a serpentine, for amianthus was found in it, as is clear from a passage of Plutarch.

"In some countries we see lakes and whole rivers, and not a few fountains and springs of hot waters, have sometimes failed and been entirely lost; and at others, have fled and absconded themselves, being hidden and concealed under the earth; but perhaps, some years after, do appear again in the same place, or else run hard by. And so of metal mines, some have been quite exhausted, as the silver ones about *Attica*; and the same has happened to the veins of brass ore in *Euboea*, of which the best blades were made, and hardened in cold water, as the poet *Æschylus* tells us,

'*Taking his sword a right* Euboean *blade*.'

"'Tis not long since the quarry of *Carystus* has ceased to yield a certain soft stone, which was wont to be drawn into a fine thread; for I suppose some here have seen towels, network, and quoifs woven of that thread which could not be burnt; but when they were soiled with using, people flung them into the fire, and took them thence white and clean, the fire only purifying them. But all this is vanished, and there is nothing but some few fibres, or hairy threads, lying up and down scatteringly in the grain of the stones, to be seen now in the quarry."*

Atracian, from Atrax, a town on the river Peneus, not far from the celebrated vale of Tempe, in Thessaly, whence it was also called *Thessalium*.

The ancients included all the rocks used in sculpture or architecture under the name of marbles; but the *verde antico*, which is really a serpentine marble, is mentioned by so many ancient writers as the most cheerful of all, with veins of a grassy appearance winding in a spiral manner, and presenting white parts when polished, that no reasonable doubt can be entertained of its being the Laconian sort.

Paul Silentiarius, in the sixth century, wrote a poem, in which he describes the decorations of the famous church of St. Sophia, then erected by the Emperor Justinian at Constantinople. The subject led him to a minute description of the most celebrated ancient marbles; and that of the Atracian, contained in six lines, may be thus literally translated. "Whatever the Atracian land produces in the plains, not in the high mountains as the other rocks, in some parts of a light green not far from the colour of the emerald, in others proceeding to a deep and full green. There is also something like snow added to a black splendour; all which concur to form one beautiful whole." From other passages of ancient writers, it appears that this stone is described in the mass, as being of a leek green; whereas the Laconian is mentioned as being of the colour of tender herbs or grass. These descriptions can scarcely be more justly applied than to what has been called *green porphyry*, the erroneous *ophites* of many modern authors, the base being of a leek green, while the crystals of felspar approach the emerald colour; and it is often spotted with white and black chalcedony, and in other instances with white felspar and black siderite. This beautiful stone seems to have been discovered after the empire was transferred to Constantinople; for it escaped the ancient classics, and continues to be celebrated from the time of Justinian, and that of Basilius the Macedonian, to that of Eustathius in the eleventh century, who mentions it, in the love story of Ismene, as quite distinct from the Laconian. It has been generally supposed to be from Egypt; but is not specified in any of the recent descriptions as being found in that country, where the red porphyry is not uncommon, and is found in pebbles in the universal bricia. The great masses found at the harbour of Ostia, only prove that it was brought by sea to that sole port of Rome*.

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* Plutarch's Moral Treatises, iv. 54. Tournefort, Travels, i. 176, mentions amianthus from Carystus, as being now an inferior kind, imposed on the ignorant as plumose alum.

RED. The *Rosso Antico*. The ancients seem sometimes to have confounded red marble with porphyry, which was quarried in the Thebaid. But statues show that red marble was also found in Egypt, or the adjoining countries; and it is highly probable, if not demonstrable, as already explained, that the *Augusteum* and *Tiberianum* of Pliny alluded to this red, *purpureus*, or imperial colour. One kind of the Rosso antico is *fiorito*, that is the Augustean; another all dotted over, the Tiberian. The colossal statue of Agrippa, formerly in the Pantheon, now in the Grimani palace at Venice, is of *Rosso antico*.

YELLOW. The *Numidian*. Paul Sil. says yellow and gold (Lumachella Castracana?) and found in Mount Maurausis

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* Wad has one Egyptian relic of what he calls green porphyry, a scarabæus; but it is of hornstone.

(Maurasius or Aurasius). It was also found spotted with red and white (*Africano fiorito. Rezziato.*)[*]

> “Sola nitet flavis Nomadum decisa metallis
> Purpura.”
>
> *Stat.*

> “Heic Nomadum lucent flaventia saxa.”
>
> *Id.*

> “Nomadum lapis additur istis,
> Antiquum mentitus ebur.”
>
> *Sid. Apoll.*

Precisely the *Giallo antico.*

Bluish Grey or Turquin. This, as well as the pure white, was found at Luna. Strabo. (*Bigio.*)

Variegated. *Phrygian* from Synnada, the *Phrygius lapis* of the classics; white, with red veins and spots.

> “. . . . . ubi marmore picto
> Candida purpureo distinguitur area gyro.”
>
> *Stat.*

> “Purpura sola, cavo Phrygiæ quod Synnados antro,
> Ipse cruentavit maculis lucentibus Atys.”
>
> *Stat.*

The spots either rose colour or deep red (*Fiore di Persico, Cipolazzo, Cotonello, Porta santa*[†].)

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[*] The *Giallo Annulato* or ringed marble may be alluded to by Pliny, xxxv. 1. when he speaks of egg figures being artificially inserted.

What is called African Bricia is quite common even in England, and is quarried at Saravezza in Tuscany, presenting large pieces of brown, reddish, and white, on a black ground. There is no ancient authority for its being African. One kind, however, resembling the *Fiore di Persico*, Brard, 348, rightly conceives to be from the same quarries, that is, Synnadic or Phrygian.

[†] Specimens of two inches of course vary much. Larger pieces would better determine the kinds. *Antico*, like *Oriental* in gems, sometimes only implies a beautiful marble.

Rhodian with golden spots (serpentine with mica? *Occhio di pavone?)*

Corinthian, *flavus*, yellow with spots. *(Canello? Perhaps Giallo e nero.)*

Chian, black or dark with spots. (Pavonazzo? *Occhio di pernice?)*

Judæan, flame colour *(Dorata?)*

Tauromenian, variegated. That of Taormina in Sicily (Red spotted with black, or a deeper red; or veined with white, *Brocatellone)*. Also, greenish with red spots.

Gibbon, vii. 190, describes from Paul Silentiarius the following marbles of St. Sophia.

Carystian, pale with iron veins. Phrygian.

Carian from Jassus, veined white and red,

Lydian, pale with a red flower (a *fiorito.)* African, of a gold or saffron colour. Celtic, black with white veins. *(Nero e bianco*.)*

What marble appears in the ruins of Palmyra?

Some further illustrations may also be offered, concerning the ancient petralogy of Egypt.

Plato, *in Timæo*, describes an Egyptian stone as composed of red, yellow, white, and black. It is the noted granite of Egypt, says Garof. p. 42. Red felspar, yellow or white quartz, black siderite.

The *psaronion*, also from Syene, derived its name from the white and ash coloured spots of starlings. Roziere gave me a specimen, which he found at Syene, intersected with a vein of red granite. Beyond Syene, Ethiopia was supposed to commence. Pausan. *Eliac.* 518.

Eusebius, lib. viii. p. 420, mentions that Christians were [illegible]mned to labour in the quarries of porphyry in the

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[illegible] black and white Celtic may be granite. The *lapis specularis* seems to

Thebais. Paul Sil. says it was brought down the Nile in large vessels.

Some have inferred the word *basalt* to be of Hebrew origin, as in that language *barsalt* or *barzalt* implies *iron*. Bellon, *It. Eg.* says he saw a pyramid of basalt as hard as iron.

Ptolemy, iv. 5, says that the eastern part of Egypt, on the Arabian gulf, was possessed by the Arabs; and among them were the quarries of *lapis Troicus*, alabastrine, porphyry, *black stone* (basalt), and of basanite. Herodotus, also, ii. 8, mentions the quarries in the Arabian chain. The town of *Alabastron* was so called from its alabaster; and *Porphyrio* from its porphyry. See Garof. 32.

No. III. *The value at Rome of Specimens of ancient Stones**.

Valore di Marmi, Alabastri, Pietre tenere e dure, ragguagliato al palmo cubico Romano.

Marmi e pietre tenere.

	Sc.	baj.
Marmo bianco di Carrara, il palmo	,,	70
Greco	,,	90
nero di Carrara	2	,,
antico, detto vulgarmente di paragone	8	,,
giallo di Siena	2	50
detto Porta Santa, antico	5	,,
detto fior de persico antico	14	,,
detto Settebase semplice antico	2	,,
a rose antico	8	,,
giallo antico	7	,,
in massa grande	8	,,

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* Petrini Gabinetto del Collegio Nazareno, tom. ii. App. Tavola xi. The Roman palm is about nine inches. The *scudo* (which contains one hundred *bajocci*) is about 4s. 6d.

	Sc.	bej.
Marmo verde antico di bella qualità	15	„
in massa grande	20	„
rosso antico	12	„
in massa grande, molto raro	24	„
Affricano	1	50
cipollino	„	60
bianco e nero antico	30	„
delle coste di Francia	8	„
Pietra volgarmente detta Marmo di Polcevera	3	50
verde Prato	3	„
Porto Venere con macchie gialle	2	50
Breccia corallina antica	5	„
di Saravezza	2	50
di Francia	„	50

Alabastri.

	Sc.	bej.
Alabastro Orientale	20	„
e pecorella antico	30	„
di S. Felicita o sia Monte Circello	4	„
di Polombara e di Civita Vecchia	2	50
di Montanto	3	„
d'Orte bianco	„	60
biondo del fosso della Penna	25	„

Pietre Dure.

	Sc.	bej.
Granito rosso delle Guglie	„	50
in massa grande	3	„
Egiziano nero con macchie bianche rossigne	3	„
bianco e nero antico, volgarmente detto della Colonna del Signore	8	„
in massa grande	12	„
porfiritico, detto porfido rosso	8	„
in massa grande	12	„
prasino, detto porfido verde	8	„
in massa grande, raro	15	„

	Sc.	baj.
Granito rosato	6	,,
steatitico, detto volgarmente Granitone, bianco e verde	6	,,
Granitello	,,	50
Basalte nero d'Egitto	10	,,
Orientale verde	20	,,
Verde di Memfi, volgarmente detto Serpentino antico	3	,,
Breccia d'Egitto di fondo verdino	8	,,

I soprammentovati prezzi si aumentano, non solo in proporzione della mole, ma anche della bellezza della pietra o marmo. Cosi, per esempio, il marmo detto Porta Santa se abbia colorito piu acceso; il verde antico se sia de macchie bianche e di verde pieno ben rilevate; e il granito porfiritico se sia di color di porpora vivo, con grani di felspato bianco romboidale; avranno sempre pregio maggiore.

No. IV. *Account of the Hill of St. Gilles, near Liege.*

Lametherie (Theorie, v. 71) has described the hill of St. Gilles, near Liege, adjacent to the river Meuse (which is seen on the left, with the coal passing under it) from Genetté: as in the plate here reduced, Dom. VI.

The height of the hill is 3200 feet; and it contains sixty-one beds of coal, separated by other beds. Many of these beds of coal and intermediate substances are composed of smaller beds; and, without doubt, the lowest beds of coal have not been discovered.

The beds of the chief hill form a concave curve; but after passing under the Meuse, they become horizontal under the little hill on the left. They afterwards rise, and become almost vertical.

On the other side, or right hand of the print, they are bent like chevrons; while the intermediate beds assume the like form.

The beds are intersected by three great dykes, called *failles* in Flanders, *crains* in France, *sprungs* or leaps in Germany.

The first, on the right of the chief hill, is thin towards the summit, but thickens as it deepens. The second is of great thickness, but does not pass the fiftieth layer of coal. The third resembles the first.

There is a great number of inferior dykes in this hill. Some are 420 feet thick at the depth of the lowest beds; but probably they thicken still more as they approach the radical rock.

All the beds of coal, which are cut by the dykes, are either lost in them, or continued in little irregular threads; or are found behind, either above or below their natural directions, and never in a straight line.

The mass of these dykes is chiefly of rock*; others of sandstone, of *agaz* (that is, a ferruginous sandstone); or of earth, with here and there broken coal.

Beds of the Hill of St. Gilles, which continue for more than a league.

1. *From the surface to the first bed of coal, 21 feet.* (The Liege foot is 10 inches French.)
   Thickness of this bed of coal 15 inches.
2. *Intermediate bed 42 feet.*
   Second bed of coal 1 f. 7 i.
   Divided into two by earth nearly an inch thick.
3. *Intermediate 84 f.*
   Third bed divided into two, 4 f. 3 i.
4. *Intermediate 49 f.*
   Fourth bed 1 f. 7 i.
5. *Intermediate 42 f.*
   Fifth bed 1 f. 3 i. In three layers.
6. *Intermediate 56 f.*
   Sixth bed 7 i.

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* Such is the vague language of Genetté.

7. *Intermediate* 56*f. again.*
Seventh bed 2 f. 3 i.
8. *Intermediate* 21*f.*
Eighth bed 2 f. 2 i. In three layers.
9. *Intermediate* 28*f.*
Ninth bed 1 f. 3 i. In three layers.
10. *Intermediate* 35*f.*
Tenth bed 1 f.
11. *Intermediate* 28*f.*
Eleventh bed 3 f. 3 i.
12. *Intermediate* 92*f.*
Twelfth bed 1 f. 2 i.
13. *Intermediate* 21*f.*
Thirteenth bed 1 f. 7 i. In three layers.
14. *Intermediate* 98*f.*
Fourteenth bed 4 f. In two layers.
15. *Intermediate.*
Fifteenth vein 3 f. 3 i. In two layers.
16. *Intermediate* 56*f.*
Sixteenth bed 3 f. In three layers.
17. *Intermediate* 42*f.*
Seventeenth bed 3 f. In two layers.
18. *Intermediate* 91*f.*
Eighteenth bed 1 f. 3 i. In two layers.
19. *Intermediate* 87*f.*
Nineteenth bed 5 f. 6 i. In two layers.
20. *Intermediate* 42*f.*
Twentieth bed 3 f. In two layers.
21. *Intermediate* 98*f.*
Twenty-first bed 2 f. 3 i. In two layers.
22. *Intermediate* 49 *f.*
Twenty-second bed 4 f. In two layers.
23. *Intermediate* 28*f.*
Twenty-third bed 1 f. 7 i. In three layers.
24. *Intermediate* 42*f.*
Twenty-fourth bed 1 f. 2 i. In two layers.

25. *Intermediate* 35 *f.*
Twenty-fifth bed 1 f. 2 i. In two layers.
26. *Intermediate* 84 *f.*
Twenty-sixth bed 3 f. 3 i. In two layers.
27. *Intermediate* 45 *f.*
Twenty-seventh bed 2 f. 3 i.
28. *Intermediate* 42 *f.*
Twenty-eighth bed 2 f. 3 i.
29. *Intermediate* 98 *f.*
Twenty-ninth bed 5 f. 7 i.
30. *Intermediate* 24 *f.*
Thirtieth bed 3 f. In two layers.
31. *Intermediate* 49 *f.*
Thirty-first bed 2 f. 3 i. In three layers.
32. *Intermediate* 94 *f.*
Thirty-second bed 3 f. In two layers.
33. *Intermediate* 70 *f.*
Thirty-third bed 4 f. 7 i. In two layers.
34. *Intermediate* 42 *f.*
Thirty-fourth bed 1 f. 3 i. In three layers.
35. *Intermediate* 70 *f.*
Thirty-fifth bed 3 f. 7 i.
36. *Intermediate* 91 *f.*
Thirty-sixth bed 3 f.
37. *Intermediate* 35 *f.*
Thirty-seventh bed 2 f. 7 i. In two layers.
38. *Intermediate* 28 *f.*
Thirty-eighth bed 1 f. In two layers.
39. *Intermediate* 14 *f.*
Thirty-ninth bed 1 f. 5 i. In two layers.
40. *Intermediate* 42 *f.*
Fortieth bed 7 i.
41. *Intermediate* 56 *f.*
Forty-first bed 2 f. 3 i. In two layers.
42. *Intermediate* 42 *f.*
Forty-second bed 4 f. 3 i. In two layers.

43. *Intermediate* 49 *f.*
Forty-third bed 1 f. 7 i.
44. *Intermediate* 67 *f.*
Forty-fourth bed 3 f.
45. *Intermediate* 42 *f.*
Forty-fifth bed 2 f. In two layers.
46. *Intermediate* 21 *f.*
Forty-sixth bed 4 f. In two layers.
47. *Intermediate* 105 *f.*
Forty-seventh bed 2 f. In two layers.
48. *Intermediate* 70 *f.*
Forty-eighth bed 7 i.
49. *Intermediate* 7 *f.*
Forty-ninth bed 1 f. 3 i.
50. *Intermediate* 70 *f.*
Fiftieth bed 4½ i.
51. *Intermediate* 7 *f.*
Fifty-first bed 1 f. 3 i.
52. *Intermediate* 35 *f.*
Fifty-second bed 3 f. In two layers.
53. *Intermediate* 84 *f.*
Fifty-third bed 3 f. In two layers.
54. *Intermediate* 70 *f.*
Fifty-fourth bed 3 f. 3 i.
55. *Intermediate* 56 *f.*
Fifty-fifth bed 3 f. 3 i.
56. *Intermediate* 84 *f.*
Fifty-sixth bed 1 f. 7 i.
57. *Intermediate* 420 *f.*
Fifty-seventh bed 2 f. 7 i. In two layers.
58. *Intermediate* 105 *f.*
Fifty-eighth bed 1 f.
59. *Intermediate* 126 *f.*
Fifty-ninth bed 3 f. 3 i. In two layers.
60. *Intermediate* 154 *f.*
Sixtieth bed 1 f. 2 i.

61. *Intermediate* 126 *f.*
Sixty-first bed 3 f. 8 i. In two layers.

All the intermediate beds are of argillaceous or calcareous stone. These substances also often appear in the thickness of the coal beds. Sometimes these beds are divided into two or three layers by *houage*, or black clay, and by [illegible], a kind of ampelite*.

This enormous mass of coal seems to form a continuation of those of Huy, Namur, Anzin, Mons, Tournay, Valenciennes.

No. V. *Strata at Portsoy, Scotland.*

[From Mr. Jameson's Mineralogy of the Scottish Islands, vol. ii. p. 270, seqq.]

"We now continued journeying along by the sea-shore, that we might have a better opportunity of discovering any interesting appearances which were to be observed. The cliffs continue to Sandside to be composed of nearly vertical strata of talcaceous and micaceous schistus; but upon the south side of Sandside I observed a considerable stratum of steel-grey, foliated limestone, which lies upon an ardesia, or primitive argillaceous schistus, and this ardesia appears to be covered by a breccia. As the sea covered the greater part of this rock of breccia, I could not determine with certainty its position with regard to the limestone. After passing this stratum of limestone, which, we were informed, runs a considerable way into the country, we came to an immense mass of breccia which seemed to be quite insulated: it is not improbable, however, that before the sea had washed away the talcaceous schistus, the breccia would have been observed covering it. We still continued our journey along the shore until we came within a quarter of a mile of Portsoy; and in that extent I observed strata of talcaceous, micaceous, and hornblende schistus, alternating with each other. We now walked to the town, which we found to be irregular and dirty.

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* Ampelite, Brongn. i. 561, is aluminous slate and black chalk. P.

"As the rocks upon the sea-shore near to this town are very interesting, we agreed to stay a day or two, and examine them particularly. I was the more anxious to do this, as they have long attracted the attention of mineralogists; but their particular geognostic characters have never been detailed in any publication. After having examined these rocks, the following is the result of the observations which I made.

"About a quarter of a mile from Portsoy, at the place to which I had traced the strata in coming into the town, the talcaceous schistus appeared in vertical strata; and nearly at the same place I observed a stratum of white marble, which is marked E, in the plan at the end of this volume. It is about twelve feet wide, and runs south-west and north-east, which is in the same direction with the bounding strata*. It appears to have been worked for ornamental purposes, as I observed several blocks upon the beach which seem to have been sawed. To this stratum succeeds a vertical stratum of micaceous schistus †, marked F, which is compact, and of a blackish colour where in contact with the marble, but of a green colour where it is in contact with the next stratum, which is serpentine ‡. The stratum of serpentine, marked G, which succeeds to the talcaceous schistus, is of great width, and, like the other strata, is nearly vertical, and runs in a

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"* This marble is white, or clouded with steel grey; but it is much mixed with scales of talc."

"† The talcaceous schistus, which alternates with these strata, has sometimes so much the appearance of compact micaceous schistus, that it cannot be distinguished from it: and as it approaches the marble, it is to be observed mixed with it, and passing into it."

"‡ This serpentine is of various shades of olive and blackish green. Its fracture, which is either uneven, coarse splintery, or even fine splintery, presents canary-green scales. It is intermixed with various fossils, as asbestus, indurated steatites, talcite of Wallerius, calcareous spar, and iron pyrites."

similar direction. It runs out into the sea like a great wall*; and this, with its green colour, gives it a singular aspect. This stratum is bounded by a stratum of talcaceous schistus, H, which is almost entirely composed of quartz, where it is in contact with the serpentine; but as it approaches the next stratum, which is marble, it has more of the talcaceous character, and is also traversed by veins of quartz. The stratum of marble, I, is from 15 to 20 feet wide; is also vertical; but is of a bad quality, and will not serve for any ornamental purpose. It has, immersed in it, pieces of quartz and talcaceous schistus. To this stratum succeeds a thin stratum of quartz; and this again is bounded by a thin stratum of talcaceous schistus, K. Both these strata are only a few feet wide, and are succeeded by a stratum of marble, L, nearly of the same width with the former stratum, I. To this marble succeeds a great stratum of serpentine, M, which is of the same nature with the stratum we have before described. This stratum is bounded by hornblende rock†, N, which forms the rocks that surround the harbour of Portsoy, and continues beyond it towards a bay, the name of which I do not recollect‡. It is traversed in several places by veins of granite, which run in different directions, and vary in breadth from one to eight or nine feet. At a little distance from the side of the bay I have just mentioned, another stratum of serpentine, marked O, makes its appearance; and to it again succeeds the hornblende rock, P, which is traversed by veins of granite§.

"We now walked along the shore by the bottom of this bay; and upon its opposite side, in the place of the hornblende rock, there are rugged cliffs of micaceous schistus, which is in some places alternated with quartz, and in others traversed by considerable granite veins. The micaceous schistus sometimes contains garnets; and the granite, which is great-grained, frequently contains crystals of schorl and mica, and sometimes it has the appearance that is called *pierre graphique*. Such appears to me the disposition and nature of the strata upon the shore at Portsoy[*].

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* Quite the reverse in the sketch.

"† The hornblende rock is generally schistose, and has sometimes scales of brown mica intermixed with it."

"‡ The serpentine, as it approaches the hornblende rock, becomes gradually intermixed with it, and at last is not to be distinguished from it."

"§ Betwixt Portsoy harbour and the bay I observed marble, but I could not determine how it lay, with respect to the other rocks; so that I have not represented it in the plan."

“As the geognostic characters of the serpentine at this place are interesting, I shall here mention, for the information of my readers, a few facts, which show that pretty nearly similar appearances have been observed in other countries. Zobtenberg, in Lower Silesia, consists entirely of serpentine, in which some hornblende is found, and its strata are nearly vertical[†]. In the Miner's Kalendar for 1790, Kohler informs us that serpentine and primitive limestone (marble) are nearly allied in their geognostic characters, and that sometimes they are disposed in strata which alternate. We are also informed that serpentine rests upon gneiss, and even alternates with it[‡], and also with quartzy talcaceous schistus[§].

“The appearance of the veins of granite traversing hornblende rock and micaceous schistus, is by no means uncommon in Scotland; and in other countries similar appearances have been very often observed. The *pierre graphique* has been observed in Siberia to form the sides of veins where the topaz is found[||]; but at Sebritz it is disposed in beds with the common granite[¶]; and in the Uralian mountains Herman observed it mixed with the common granite[**]. Patrin, who found it in Siberia with the topaz, conjectures that it

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“[*] Some travellers are of opinion that the serpentine and marble form great veins, rather than vertical strata.”

“[†] 4 Berl. Beobacht. 353.”

“[‡] Charpentier Mineralogische Geographe von Chursachsischen Lande.”

“[§] N. Nord. Beytrage. 149.”

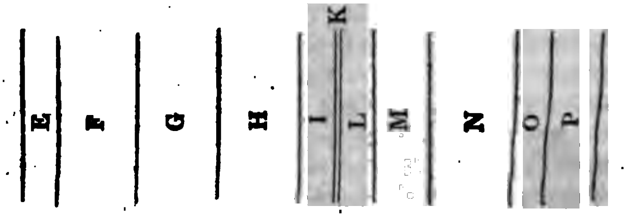
[||] Jour. de Physique. Ann. 1791.

[¶] N. Bergmannishe's Journal, B. 2. 443.

[**] Herman Mineralogische Beschreibung des Uralaischen Giburges. B. 1. 144.

may generally be considered as indicative of the presence of these gems.

"Having thus examined the strata upon the shore, I walked into the country for about two miles, but could observe no trace of the serpentine, or marble, or talcaceous schistus; but in several places I observed the hornblende rock. I ascended a hill a few hundred feet high; upon the side of it were masses of hornblende rock and gneiss scattered about, but towards the summit it was entirely composed of schistose quartz. This is a rare rock in Scotland; nor has it been observed but in a very few places upon the Continent."



No. VI. *Further illustrations of Miagite and Niolite.*

[Translated from Faujas, *Essai de Geologie*, Paris 1809, tome ii. p. 679.]

ORBICULAR GRANITE OF CORSICA;

Discovery of the Site of this Stone.

In 1785 was discovered in Corsica, on a small eminence with a level summit in the plain of Taravo, an insulated and rounded, but at the same time unparalleled block of rare and extraordinary granite with globular crystallisations, which deeply excited the curiosity of naturalists.

If, on the one hand, this discovery was interesting to mineralogists; on the other, geologists readily comprehended that an insulated block of stone, the organisation of which possessed a character so forcibly pronounced and so different to that of other rocks, might, if the spot where it was found were discovered, point out the distance it had traversed from its native place to that whither it was removed in the shape of a rounded block.

Messieurs de Sionville, Barral, Dolomieu, and other naturalists after them, made long and vain researches to discover the orbicular granite in its original situation. The search for it seemed to be abandoned, and specimens of the first block, dispersed in cabinets, became every day more and more rare; and when any pieces of it were exposed to sale, they obtained very considerable prices.

In the month of May 1809, that is to say, twenty-four years afterwards, M. Mathieu, a captain of artillery resident in Corsica, distinguished alike for his military talents and his taste for the study of nature, while traversing the steep granitic mountain by the side of the village of *Sainte Lucie*, seven leagues distant from the spot where the first block was found, observed attentively a saliant mass of rock, entirely covered with lichens and moss, which concealed its external character; but the interior texture of the stone being accidentally displayed by a break in it, M. Mathieu was agreeably surprised to find that the whole mass consisted of orbicular granite, similar in composition, colour, and mode of formation, to the orbicular granite which had so long and fruitlessly been sought: other masses, contiguous one to the other, and in a similar manner covered with lichens and old moss, occasioning a presumption that they might be of like nature, M. Mathieu tried them with his hammer, and discovered them to be actually the same species of orbicular granite. It was about three parts up the mountain, and on ground belonging to M. *Jean Paul Roccaserra*, that this discovery was made.

As the point the most essential to geology here is to ascertain distinctly the spot where this granite lies, that no doubt may be entertained of its adherence to the rock on which it was formed, it is necessary, fully to elucidate this matter, to know that the mountain of *Sainte Lucie* is generally composed of a greyish granite, consisting of quartz, felspar, and mica; and that it has an elevation of about 600 feet*.

Let us suppose the observer to be placed on the summit of the mountain, where blocks and masses of grey granite lie bare, some of them saliant and affected in a slight degree by time; from this point he is presumed to take his departure, as if he would descend by the side of the mountain which apparently slopes towards the village of *Sainte Lucie*.

His way then lies over the same kind of granitic rock until 160 feet below the summit whence he departed, measuring perpendicularly; in the rock he passes over there is nothing but quartz, felspar, and mica without hornblende. When at this distance below the summit he will notice a change in the rock, which insensibly passes to the state of *hornblende* rock of rather a greenish black colour, mixed with much white felspar, compact, but in a slight degree granulated, and somewhat similar to antique black and white granite of a fine grain.

As the observer advances over this differing space he will begin to perceive the first attempts at globular crystallisation in the solid rock; shortly after he will discover a pretty large mass, harder than the mother rock, which rises to a certain height, but at its base adheres to the hornblende rock below. This first block presents globules of different sizes, the spherical form of which is advanced to a more perfect and regular state than in the crystallisations previously noticed.

Finally, at but little distance from this first mass of globular granite, others are found of similar nature, more or less saliant, but the number of them is not great. M. Mathieu imagines them to be a species of kernels much more solid than the hornblende rock which gave them birth; and that this, not being of a composition equally hard, has been unable in an equal degree to resist the action of the weather, and consequently, becoming gradually decomposed in part, has left the orbicular granite bare.

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* These instructive details I have from M. Mathieu himself, whom I had the pleasure of seeing at Paris, on his way to Holland, whither he was going by order of the minister. He was kind enough to communicate to me the position of the mountain of *Sainte Lucie*, to draw a sketch of it, and to mark the places where the globular granite is situate; and at his request it is, and with his permission, that I publish this account, to serve as a supplement to what I have said of the orbicular granite of the plain of Taravo.

The space occupied by these singular productions, at least such of them as are exposed to sight, including that filled by the hornblende rock, is about a hundred yards; after which the ordinary granite reappears.

M. Mathieu, not content with simply affording me instructive information respecting the discovery he had made, was so kind and liberal as to enrich my collection with a series of beautiful specimens of all the varieties of orbicular granite he had collected on the mountain of Sainte Lucie.

I here annex a short description of those which appeared to me the most interesting.

No. 1. A specimen, the thickness of which is one inch and three lines, diameter four inches, of orbicular granite, resembling as well in composition, shade of colour, and hardness, as in the form of its globules, that of *Taravo*, possessing also like that some small brilliant points of a substance apparently metallic, and of a silvery white colour, which affects the magnet, and belongs to the class of magnetic pyrites. This substance takes a beautiful polish; grains of this description are not numerous, but distinctly sprinkled in the mass, as well as in the globules themselves of this granite. In every respect, in short, it seems a similar species to that of the valley of *Taravo;* but M. Mathieu informed me that this beautiful variety is not frequent: it exists, however, in its original site, which suffices.

No. 2. Orbicular granite, the composition of which is the same with that of the granite of the plain of *Taravo*, but the globules of which, of much greater size, are almost entirely white, owing to the predominance of the felspar of that colour, and the almost total absence of hornblende, of which only very slight traces can be distinguished. White globules, like those on the black ground spotted with white, of which this granite is composed, produce an effect as remarkable as it is extraordinary. The arts might reap great advantage from it in the formation of certain monuments; which would be the more attractive of notice as the Greeks and Romans, so solicitous of employing the most curious granites, never knew this species. As, according to M. Mathieu, the largest blocks are of this variety, they would consequently furnish the most considerable masses; in order to transport them, all that would be required is the making a road practicable for carriages, from Mount Sainte Lucie to the Gulf of *Valinco*.

Some laminæ of mica, of a bright brown, are seen in small patches, in certain parts of this granite.

No. 3. Another variety, remarkable on account of the ground of the stone, which is of much deeper colour, owing to the greater abundance of hornblende, and to its particles being more divided, and more equally mixed with the granulated felspar, which has received a tint from it of greenish black, that gives the stone, which is hard and receives a very beautiful polish, rather a grave appearance. The globules in general are of inferior size, and distinctly marked, and the lightly greenish tint which shades their white circles harmonises with the ground of the stone.

No. 4. I know not whether or not we ought to consider as a fourth variety that in which the globules are of equal size with those in the preceding, but in which the ground is different; being more rich in felspar than in hornblende, and speckled with white and black in a very distinct manner [illegible] without being mixed, so that the white specks predomi[illegible] the ground, far from being so harsh as in the preceding, is lively; what indeed renders this specimen still more pleasing, the globules, being tinged with an extremely light but evident shade of black, have acquired by the mixture a bluish appearance, highly grateful to the eye.

No. 5. Finally, one of the most remarkable varieties of the orbicular granite discovered by M. Mathieu, and at the same time the most clearly distinct as a variety, is that which, on nearly a black and equal ground, resulting from a uniform mixture of white felspar and black hornblende in particles, is distinguished by its globules having in general the first circle white. As black is the dominant colour in this singular variety of orbicular granite, the white circles which succeed, and are alternated with black, participate of this tint, and are, as it were, veiled with black: they are, however, very distinct, owing to their contrasting with the other circles, which are of the deepest black. This variety, which takes a polish equally beautiful with the other specimens, and is equally hard, is found in tolerably large masses. It is admirably adapted for urns, and other vases of a grave aspect.

Such are the principal varieties of the orbicular granite, for the discovery of which we are indebted to M. Mathieu. I have thought right to give these details at length, the better to delineate a rock of which nature has been so little prodigal. I reserve all the facts, that I may resume them when, if I am able, I may occupy myself with the theory of this stone; for if it be clearly demonstrated, as every thing seems to show, that this is the native site from which the block of *Taravo* was torn, an exact *datum* will be afforded of a very singular geological fact.

GLOBULAR PORPHYRY OF CORSICA;

Its disposition in large veins.

It was reserved for M. Mathieu to find on its natal spot, not only the orbicular granite, but also globular porphyry, two of the most beautiful stones known to mineralogists.

I had before heard from M. Dupeyrat, chief engineer *des ponts et chaussées* in Corsica, a very good naturalist, that M. Mathieu, a captain of artillery, had discovered large masses of globular porphyry on their site. M. Dupeyrat was so good even as to give me a handsome specimen of this stone from M. Mathieu; but I was yet without the necessary information respecting the spot where it was found, to be able to speak of it with certainty, when M. Mathieu, under orders to join the army in Holland, came to Paris, where I had the pleasure of seeing him, and receiving some very instructive details, accompanied by plans and drawings, and a series of very fine specimens of all the varieties of globular porphyry, with which he was so obliging as to enrich my collection.

My book was wholly printed, but the publication was delayed by the engravings not being yet entirely completed; this delay allowed of my inserting the present account, as well as that I have previously given of orbicular granite: the learned among naturalists will be the better pleased with me for producing it, as the basis of the account is derived from M. Mathieu himself.

It is fit however that I should observe, before I proceed further, that a specimen of globular porphyry, nearly twenty years back, was added to the collection of the beautiful cabinet of natural history in the *Hotel de Monnaie* at Paris, formed by M. Sage, founder of the first School of Mines, a ticket to which states that it came from *Galeria*, in Corsica; but whether this single specimen wholly escaped the notice of mineralogists; whether it was regarded merely as a sort of solid geod, formed accidentally in the composition which serves it as a gang, this species of stone was no longer spoken of, and no specimens of it were found in other cabinets.

In the month of January, 1806, M. Rampasse, a veteran officer of Corsican light infantry, favoured me with information from Bastia that, in a mineralogical excursion into the mountains of granite in search of orbicular granite, in which search he was unsuccessful, he had in some measure been indemnified by the discovery, on the flank of a mountain covered with wood, between Monte Pertusato and the valley which leads to Santa Maria la Stella, of "a block of stone, four feet and a half in length by three in breadth, which was sunk in the earth, and displayed on one of its sides globular bodies remarkable for their disposition and colour."* M. Rampasse added, that he was unable to sunder more than about eighty pounds weight from the stone, and that he considered it a proper appendage to the orbicular granite. Some time after M. Rampasse came to Paris, and the specimens of globular porphyry which he brought with him strongly excited the attention of naturalists.

It was not then generally known, and I myself was at that time ignorant, that M. Mathieu had discovered, twelve months before, orbicular porphyry on its native site, not only in large masses, but in a kind of veins, very thick and of considerable extent, and that he had already sent to Paris two memoirs on the occasion, accompanied by plans and charts, the one intended for presentation to the Institute of France, the other addressed to M. Vialart-Saint-Morys, who resides on one of his estates at Houdamville, in the neighbourhood of Clermont, in the department of the Oise; this latter was also accompanied by several specimens of the stone, which, with the memoir, were contained in a case that had not yet been opened, and which M. de Saint Morys was requested by M. Mathieu, on his passing through Paris, to deliver into my hands. From this memoir I propose to designate the site of the globular porphyry found by M. Mathieu, in a different spot from that in which M. Rampasse discovered his insulated block partly buried in the earth.

"The territory on which the globular porphyry is found," says M. Mathieu, in a memoir sent to M. Vialart-Saint-Morys, and which I have at this time before me, "is bounded on the south by the *Busagia*, and on the north by the *Marzolino*; it comprises the district of *Ozani*, and that of *Girolata*, which collectively have an extent of about eight leagues and a half square. The aspect of the country is extremely rugged and wild, especially in the district of *Girolata*: nothing is seen but steep and arid mountains, the most elevated of which form a line from east to west; these are accompanied by other small chains less lofty, resembling teats, which become gradually of less height as they advance in amphitheatrical disposition to the sea, when they terminate in almost inaccessible cliffs. The whole of this mountainous district is composed of porphyrous rocks of different species, varying from each other in colour, in the disposition of their constituent parts, in degree of hardness, and the different state of oxydation of the iron which generally predominates in them.

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* See the letter of M. Rampasse, inserted *Tome viii. page* 470, of the *Annales du Museum d'Histoire Naturelle.*

" These rocks are furrowed by long and large veins, some of them more than sixteen feet in thickness, and of considerable extent. As these consist of a porphyry of greater hardness than that which forms their bed, and which has undergone a change from time, they resemble large walls raised by the hand of man. Many of these veins have globules in them, varying in size and intensity of colour; and as these kinds of walls are sometimes very wide apart, they present distinctions and a great variety in their form, and the disposition and shade of the colour of their globules. The vein of the village *Curzo* is greyish; in this the globules are very large and of a somewhat rosy colour; while at *Girolata* the ground is a blood red, and the globules of a less deep colour. At a short distance from this last spot is seen a vein, the globules of which are not larger than peas. The largest globules are found on two peaks of a sugar-loaf form: these show themselves distinctly, and contrast perfectly with the ground of the porphyry; they are three inches in diameter, and most commonly four.

" At *La Bocca Vignola* the whole surface of the soil is covered with small balls in a state of decomposition; at *La*

Bocca Galeria the felspar, harder and of a deeper colour than any where else, contains globules of a paler hue; there also are found most beautiful geods of a substance much more indurated, which seem as if agatised, and are of a reddish brown colour; at *Fornaci* the same kind of geods, but of a violet tint: these last are very bulky, some of them being more than a foot and a half in diameter.

" At *Elbo,* on the sea-shore, globules are found detached from their matrices, forming a sort of insulated balls. It appears that the action of the waves has been sufficiently forcible to beat down, break, and wear away, blocks of the porphyry; but that the globules being much more hard, have more strongly resisted degradation, and been cast on shore.

" To conclude: this vast extent is entirely composed of porphyrous rocks, intersected by numerous veins in the form of walls, in which the globular system is every where manifested; and this wide field for observation well deserves the attention of skilful mineralogists, who could not fail of making numerous discoveries."

It now remains I should give a detail of the different specimens of orbicular porphyry, presented to me by M. Mathieu.

No. 1. Porphyry of an isabella colour, with a very light shade of the rose, the globules spherical, very small and radiant, some of them encircled by a distinct line, others without this distinct line, and united with the ground in such manner as to seem to form but one body with their matrix. The ground, which is felspar, very compact, and formed of extremely small particles, receives an excellent polish, for it is hard, but susceptible at the same time of decomposition, as well from the oxydation of the iron it contains, as from other causes. The largest globules of this porphyry are but four lines in diameter, the smallest in general three. When this stone is broken for the purpose of obtaining specimens, the globules sometimes separate in a perfect state, and leave the mark of their position in the stone.

This variety of porphyry with small globules requires the detail given of it, on account of its accompanying generally the porphyry with large globules, which we are about to mention; or, more properly speaking, this is the rock itself, in midst of which the latter is most commonly found in the shape of thick walls which resemble veins, and which show themselves in this manner only on account of their having opposed a greater resistance to decomposition than the surrounding rock with small globules. This rock, more abounding in felspar, and of more homogenous texture, is, like all felspar, subject to a species of spontaneous decomposition, especially if iron, so prone to oxydation, be found in it, either united or in combination, in too great a proportion. The walls of globular porphyry have even more readily become exposed, when they have chanced to be surrounded by rocks of a greenish granulated porphyry, of a more tender nature, and similar to those found at Oberstein; in the Esterelle mountain; and in general in most countries yielding porphyry.

No. 2. Spherical globules, two inches in diameter, the smallest being of two inches wanting three lines, lying in their gang, to which they closely adhere.

This gang is compact felspar, speckled with an ochry red of different shades, with small spots of a blackish brown, and can be considered, as well from its position as from its special mode of formation, as no other than a porphyroïd, and not a jaspoïd, for its parts are fusible under the blow-pipe. Observing the small red spots through a microscope, one sees distinctly that they are formed only by imperfect crystallisations of a globular figure. The ground, of a blackish brown, on which these diminutive globules, in an imperfect state and of a reddish colour, appear, has this tint from the iron, on its oxydation, assuming a blackish colour, whereas in the globules the oxyd of the iron is red; but whether there be a somewhat greater proportion of quartzy particles in the small blackish spots than in those which are red, it is a fact that the spots and the lineaments of a blackish tint are harder in a certain degree than those which are red; this is most evident after the stone has been submitted to a polish, and is exposed to a favourable light. The black parts are then seen to be slightly saliant, and to exhibit, notwithstanding the whole stone receives a beautiful polish, a glossiness more lively and more brilliant than the rest of it.

The globules enclosed in this porphyry are of a flesh colour varying in shade, with radii diverging from the centre to the circumference, traced by lines of a more evident colour than the rest of the globule, and rather blackish; these lines irradiate from a kernel in the centre, of a uniform but more red colour than the rest of the globule. A broad circular line, almost white, or but faintly tinged with red, surrounds each globule, and determines the circumference. But, in order to obtain all these results in the best manner, on sawing the specimens care should be taken to divide each ball as nearly as possible in the centre, so that the kernel may appear: the balls thus cut take an exquisite polish, which exhibits in a plain manner the effect of this singular system of globular crystallisation.

No. 3. A perfectly spherical ball, accidentally separated from the rock; it is three inches and six lines in diameter; a circle five lines broad, and uniform in its breadth, surrounds the exterior of the ball, which is composed of a kind of hard felspar, analogous to that of the matrix, but of which the points, of a reddish colour, are very small. All these present imperfect crystallisations in small compact divergent rays.

A second circle, two lines and a half in breadth, of compact felspar of a fawn-coloured white, is enclosed within the external circle, and the rest of the ball is only an assemblage of crystals of compact felspar of a somewhat deeper tint, which direct to a common centre: I had this separated ball cut into two equal parts.

No. 4. In a beautiful specimen composed of three large globules, very sound, and perfect in their gangart, a singular accident is seen to have taken place, the discovery of which is owing to mere chance. Having caused this specimen to be cut, in order to be enabled to place it in my drawers, it was divided into two equal parts, and the operation exposed a globule two inches and three lines in diameter, a piece of which had at some former time been separated from it by a motion of the rock, but was again knitted to the stock in such a perfect manner that the joint was scarcely perceptible. This section of the globule forms a kind of crescent one inch seven lines in length, which is out of its place as if repulsed from the circle, but in such manner that one might fancy it would assume its ancient disposition; notwithstanding which, I must repeat, it is difficult to distinguish the points of connexion.

This specimen, before it was cut, was presented to me by M. Rampasse.

No. 5. An elongated oval globule, of great regularity in its colours; in breadth one inch nine lines, in length four inches two lines: it is to be presumed this elongated form is owing to the union of several globules at the period of their crystallisation, which thus became confounded in one oval; a line of red felspar fills the whole length of the greater diameter, and the crystals diverge from this point, which serves as their common centre: this specimen, highly remarkable on account of its shape, has a kind of regularity in all its parts.

To conclude, the large blocks of a stone so singular and so hard as this, were they worked for the purpose of introducing them to the arts, whether in making of columns, tables, or socles, would present pieces equally remarkable for the nature of the stone itself, as for variety, size, the colour, and form of the globules, which render it so much an object of curiosity.

No. VII. *Reineggs on the Mineralogy of the Archipelago.*

[Scelta di opuscoli interessanti. Milan 1777, 8vo. vol. xxxii.[*]]

The mountains of Istria are connected with those of Carniola and Stiria, of a moderate height, but rather precipitous. They entirely consist of limestone, with a prodigious quantity of nummulites. Statues have been formed of it, in which the shells produce the effect of marks of the small-pox. The strata are strangely varied, sometimes horizontal, sometimes vertical. They are mostly clothed with olives and vines.

Further on is formed a siliceous sandstone, which afterwards changes for white limestone, which continues to the neighbourhood of Ragusa.

The mountains of Dalmatia are of the same kind, being mostly composed of a compact limestone, capable of polish.

Near Cattaro appears a kind of gneiss among the fissures of the limestone. Towards Scutari the mountains are granite. The Pasha presented to him some medals of iron, which he says may be as ancient as the time of Lycurgus[†].

The chain of mountains of Epirus continues into Arcadia, where the summits are very high.

Most of the isles, as Cefalonia for example, have a high mountain in the middle, which gradually lowers towards the sea. Mylo presents warm sulphureous waters. Some of the hills of this isle are calcareous, others of a brown marly clay. There is also found a fine talcaceous earth. The subterranean fires, mentioned by Tournefort, no longer exist; but there are vestiges of volcanoes towards the north, where the hills are granitic, with basalt and vitrifications. .There is a hill of a kind of pumice, which is so hard as to form millstones, but of a very bad sort, and the chief cause of the bad bread which is eat in all the Archipelago.

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[*] This paper being short, and little known, it was thought proper to preserve it here.

[†] This is truly singular, as such medals have always formed a desideratum in cabinets, and we can hardly suspect a mineralogist of mistaking the metal.

Of Paros, though celebrated for its marble, the high hills are of granite; but clay-slate also appears in the vicinity of the marble.

Miconi is chiefly of granite and basalt. There are currents of volcanic glass, from one to fourteen inches in breadth, in the granite, which is also interspersed with basalt. Towards the south a crater appears full of volcanic glass, basalt, and many kinds of stone which have evidently undergone the action of fire. Towards the port is decayed granite, and there is no mark of limestone.

Scio is one of the most beautiful of the Greek isles, and the people the most amiable and intelligent. In the torrents are found many kinds of granite, jasper, agate, carnelian, quartz, and calcareous spar. There are also ancient mines of silver; and some volcanic appearances. Scio is famous for the culture of mastic; and the population is computed at sixty thousand.

The hills of Mitilene are sometimes wholly composed of pure and white pumice, while others are granitic, and the greater part calcareous. The mountain called Kara is wholly composed of fragments of basalt, quartz, and a black stone which seems a trap of the Germans united by a cement which is half calcined.

Near Smyrna the highest mountains are of granite. One hill appears split in two halves; of which one, which is separated to the distance of about 300 paces, is all broken in pieces. The internal fissures of the mountain are filled with a white limestone, like the marble of Paros, which penetrates the granite in every direction, in veins from one inch to 130 paces in breadth. Here, and at Paros, the marble is separated from the granite by a layer of green mica-slate. The calcareous hills about Smyrna may often be distinguished from the granitic by being cavernous, and yielding a hollow sound under the feet. Bournabat, the fairest part of the territory of Smyrna, presents many ancient columns of basalt and granite; but in the mosques the Turks, from superstition, colour them green or red. About five miles* from Smyrna is a place called Nemphis, where there are mines of lead which yield silver, the hills being traversed by veins of gneiss.

No. VIII. *Account of some Rocks in the south of Hindostan* †.

" In ascending the Ghats, I had an excellent opportunity of observing the strata, where the rock had been cut away to form the road. The grand component part of these mountains is a granite, consisting of white felspar and quartz, with dark green mica in a small proportion to the other two ingredients. The particles are angular, and of moderate size. It seems to come near to the granitello of the Italians (Waller. Min. ii. p. 423), and is an excellent material for building, as it is readily cleft by wedges, and is at the same time strong and durable. Intermixed with this is another stone, in a state of decay, consisting of angular masses of various sizes, divided by fissures, so as to be separable with little difficulty. The sides of the fissures are tarnished, and covered by extraneous matter. This is a stone commonly called a granite in decay, the mica being supposed to have been entirely decomposed, and the felspar to be in the act of decomposition, and to have assumed an arid powdery appearance, while the glassy quartz retains its natural consistence. That the strata in question are in a state of decay, from the numerous fissures in them, I have no doubt; but there are other strata of similar component parts common all over the lower *Carnatic*, especially at *Mahabalipura* (the seven Pagodas), which are in the most perfect state of preservation, without the smallest mark of decay, and fit for forming the most durable buildings. Mr. Fichtel, who has been so kind as to look over my specimens, and to assist me with his opinion concerning their nature, thinks that the stone of *Mahabalipura* consists of a mixture of arid and of fat quartz; and although he calls the stone of the *Ghats* granite, I have no doubt of its component parts being the same with those of the Mahabalipura stone.

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* German miles?

† From Buchanan's Travels, 3 vols. 4to.

"Both these rocks appear to be stratified; but the strata are wonderfully broken and confused. In some places they are almost horizontal, in others they are vertical, with all intermediate degrees of inclination. Sometimes the decaying stratum lies above the perfect, and at other times is covered by it. I saw many strata not above three feet wide; while in other masses of eight or ten feet high, and many long, I could perceive no division.

"Immersed in both kinds I observed many nodules, as large as the head, which were composed of a decaying substance containing much green mica. In other places there are large veins, and beds, containing small rhomboidal masses, of what Mr. Fichtel takes to be a composition of a small proportion of quartz with much iron." *

Of the hills near Cavery.

"The strata on these hills are various. I saw red granitic porphyry, and took specimens of a fine-grained gneiss, consisting of pale red felspar, white quartz, and black mica. The most common rock, however, is the hornblende slate with quartz, which I have before mentioned. When exposed to the air in large high masses, so as to prevent the water from lodging on it, the pieces decay into fragments of a rhomboidal form; but when exposed to the air on a level with the ground, so as to be penetrated by the rain water, it divides into thin laminæ, like common schistus." †

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* Vol. i. p. 27. † Vol. i. p. 59.

"The stones that are employed in building the temples at *Magadi* are:

"1. The granitic porphyry, or the granite which contains large masses of red felspar in a small-grained mixture of grey quartz and black mica, which I described at *Ráma-giri*. Near *Savanadurga* there is an excellent quarry of this stone.

"2. A granite, consisting chiefly of black mica and red felspar. This may be procured of a very large size.

"3. The common grey granite of the country.

"I met also with the two following stones:

"1. A granite with large grains, black and white. This may be procured of great size.

"2. A most ornamental aggregated rock. The basis is green, of what nature I am uncertain; perhaps it may be a hornstone. It contains veins of white quartz, and concretions of red felspar. The whole takes an elegant polish, and may, in Mr. Kirwan's acceptation of the word, be considered as a porphyry. Near the surface the rock is full of rents; but by digging deep, it is said large masses may be procured. It seems to differ from the fine green stone which was found in the palace at Seringapatam, only by containing felspar."[*]

Quarry of black stone.

"This quarry is situated about half a mile east from the village[†], and rises in a small ridge about half a mile long, 100 yards wide, and from 20 to 50 feet in perpendicular height. This ridge runs nearly north and south, in the common direction of the strata of the country, and is surrounded on all sides by the common grey granite, which, as usual, is penetrated in all directions by veins of quartz and felspar; but neither of these enter the quarry.

"This stone is called *Cariculla*, or black stone, by the natives, who give the same appellation to the quartz impregnated with iron, and to the brown hematites; and in fact they all run very much into one another, and differ chiefly in the various proportions of the same component parts; but have a certain general similitude easily defined, and are found in similar masses and strata. The black-stone of this place is an amorphous hornblende, containing minute but distinct rhomboidal lamellar concretions of basaltin*. I imagine that it is the same stone with that which by the ancients was called *basaltes*, and which was by them sometimes formed into images, as it is now by the idolaters of India.

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[*] Vol. i. p. 182.

[†] Cada-hully.

" The surface of the ridge is covered with large irregular masses, where they have been long exposed to the air in the natural process of decay, lose their angles first. When these masses have thus become rounded, they decay in concentric lamellæ; but where the rock itself is exposed to the air, it separates into plates of various thicknesses, nearly vertical, and running north and south. In the sound stone there is not the smallest appearance of a slaty texture, and it splits with wedges in all directions. The north end of the ridge is the lowest, and has on its surface the largest masses. It is there only that the natives have wrought it; they have always contented themselves with splitting detached blocks, and have never ventured on the solid rock, where much finer pieces might be procured than has ever yet been obtained. The Baswa, or bull, at Turiva-Cary, is the finest piece that I have seen."†

" Immediately north from the village is a quarry of *Ballapum*, or potstone, which is used by the natives for making small vessels; and is so soft, that pencils are formed of it to write upon books, which are made with cloth blackened and stiffened with gum. Both the books and the neatness of the writing are very inferior to the similar ones of the people of *Ava*, who, in fact, are much farther advanced in the arts than the *Hindus* of this country. This potstone separates into large amorphous masses, each covered with a crust in a decaying state; and some of them are entirely penetrated with long slender needles of schorlaceous actinote." *

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* Of Kirwan; crystallised siderite.

† Vol. ii. p. 61.

The hill on which Mail-Cotay stands consists of a kind of gneiss, but the description is very confused: also a granitel of black hornblende slate, mixed with white quartz in such a manner that when broken longitudinally the quartz forms veins, when transversely spots. †

"The strata on the Ghats are much covered with the soil, so that it is in a few places only that they are to be seen. Having no compass, I could not ascertain their course; but far as I could judge from the sun in a country so hilly, they appeared to run north and south, with a dip to the east of about 30 degrees. Wherever it appears on the surface, the rock, although extremely hard or tough, is in a state of decay; and owing to this decay, its stratified nature is very evident. The plates, indeed, of which the strata consist, are in general under a foot in thickness, and are subdivided into rhomboidal fragments by fissures which have a smooth surface. It is properly an aggregate stone, composed of quartz impregnated with hornblende. From this last it acquires its great toughness. In decay, the hornblende in some plates seems to waste faster than in others, and thus leaves the stone divided into zones, which are alternately porous and white. I am inclined to think that all mountains of a hornblende nature are less rugged than those of granite, owing to their being more easily decomposed by the action of the air. This rock contains many small crystallised particles, apparently of iron." ‡

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* Vol. ii. p. 62.

† Vol. ii. p. 78.

‡ Vol. iii. p. 205.

No. IX. *Letter of M. Daubuisson, on his intended treatise of Geognosy, to the author.*

"Paris, le 20 Germinal, an 12.

"MONSIEUR,

"Je suis bien faché de ne pas m'être trouvé chez moi lorsque vous y etez venu : j'aurois voulu avoir l'honneur de vous saluer avant votre depart. Mon traité de Géognosie, d'apres les principes de M. Werner, avance, mais lentement, vu le peu de tems que j'ai a ma disposition pour y travailler. Je viens de rediger définitivement deux longs chapitres presqu' entièrement de Géographie physique, et qui certainment vous interesseront beaucoup : l'un traite des inegalités de la surface du globe, notamment des montagnes, on y traite assez en detail des diverses parties d'une chaine de montagnes, et des observations à faire sur chacune d'elles : l'autre a principalement pour objet l'action érosive des eaux et de l'atmosphere, sur la surface du globe, et l'on y examine jusqu'à quel point cette action a pu, non produire, mais *façonner* les inegalités de cette surface. Je suis dans ce moment occupé du chapitre peut-être le plus interessant ; celui qui traite de la structure, de la stratification, de la superposition, des roches : ici rien n'est théorique, ce sont des faits, ce sont les principes qui doivent guider l'observateur. Je ne puis dire avec precision à quelle époque mon travail sera livré à l'impression, n'étant pas maitre de disposer de mon tems conformement a mes desirs. Lorsqu'il aura paru, je le recommande à votre indulgence, et serois très flatté s'il pouroit avoir l'approbation d'un juge aussi éclairé que vous.

"Daignez agréer les assurances de ma consideration distingué,

"J. F. DAUBUISSON."

No. X. *Explanation of the direction and inclination of Veins.*

[See the Plate.]

The position of metallic veins is ascertained and described by three different angles; that of the *direction*, *dip*, and *inclination*.

The angle of direction, or simply the direction, is ascertained by observing the point of the compass, or degree of the horizon, it tends towards, as *A B*, Fig. 1.

The dip is the angle which it makes with the plane of the horizon, as *B A E*, Fig. 2.

The inclination is the angle which one of its sides makes with a vertical plane, as *a b c*, Fig. 3; where *b c* represents the transverse section of the vein, and *a b* that of the vertical plane.

This is further illustrated by Fig. 4; where *A B* represents the perspective view of a metallic vein. *C D* is the compass placed parallel to the horizon, and *E F* is the direction of the vein.

The angle *F E B* is the dip, being the angle which the vein makes with the horizontal plane; and the angle *a b c* is the inclination, or the angle which the side of the vein makes with the vertical plane *a b*.

No. XI. *Examples of the application of the present system to Lithology and Metallogy.*

LITHOLOGY.

DOM. I. SIDEROUS.
II. SILICEOUS.
III. ARGILLACEOUS.
IV. TALCOUS.
V. CALCAREOUS.
VI. BARYTIC.
VII. STRONTIANIC.
VIII. ZIRCONIC.
IX. SALINE.
X. COMBUSTIBLE.

DOMAIN VII.

STRONTIANIC.

MODE I. Strontian, or Carbonate of Strontian.

STRUCTURE I. Massive.
Aspect 1. Entire.
2. With barytes, galena, &c.

STRUCTURE II. Crystallised.
Varieties, green, white*.

MODE II. Celestine, or Sulphate of Strontian.

STRUCTURE I. Fibrous.
Aspect 1. Massive.
2. Laminar.
Varieties, of different colours.
STRUCTURE II. Foliated.
III. Radiated.
IV. Compact.

Of this last is that of Montmartre, which however only occurs in geods or nodules, and greatly yields in beauty to the other Structures.

DOMAIN VIII.

ZIRCONIC.

This may be divided into two Modes, as there seems to be more silex in the jacint than in the zircon; and at any rate the mode of combination is different, else they could not be distinguished.

MODE I. Zircon.

STRUCTURE I. Globular.
II. In various crystalline forms, which must be described.

MODE II. Jacint, by the Persians called Yacut.

STRUCTURE I. In round grains.
II. In various crystalline forms, which form aspects, while the colours form varieties.

METALLOGY.

DOM. I. GOLD.
II. PLATINA.
III. SILVER.
IV. COPPER.

---

* Any very singular colour would form a *Diversity*.

DOM. V. IRON.
VI. TIN.
VII. LEAD.
VIII. MERCURY.
IX. ZINC.
X. ANTIMONY.
XI. ARSENIC.
XII. BISMUTH.
XIII. COBALT.
XIV. NICKEL.
XV. MANGANESE.
XVI. MOLYBDENA.
XVII. TITAN[*].
XVIII. CHROME.
XIX. SCHEELE.
XX. URANIUM, &c.&c.

Dr. Thomson observes that all metals are found in the following states: 1. Metallic, either alone or combined. 2. Combined with sulphur. 3. Oxyds, that is, united with oxygen. 4. Combined with acids. Each order therefore, as he adds, may be divided into the four following Genera.

1. Alloys. 3. Oxyds.
2. Sulphurets. 4. Salts.

But Haüy has, on the contrary, considered each metal as a genus; and Werner, an excellent judge of metallogy in particular, considers each metal as a genus, and the various combinations as species.

But as Mode chiefly implies the mode of chemical combination, it is evident that these pretended genera and species, which are wholly vague as being derived from an analogy merely imaginary between inert and animated nature, are most properly and peculiarly Modes. The Aspects are equally applicable as in Petralogy and Lithology. The Structure is also applicable to the composition in general; as in *structura verborum* it is classically applied to very small objects[*].

METALLOGY.

DOMAIN I.

GOLD.

NOME I. ALLOYS.

MODE I. Pure, or rather entire, for it always contains silver or copper.

STRUCTURE I. Massive.

Diversities, 1. in rocks; 2. in *pepitos*, or detached masses found in clay or sand, &c.

STRUCTURE II. Disseminated in rocks, sands, &c.

STRUCTURE III. Crystallised.

Aspect 1. In cubes, or other regular forms.

Aspect 2. Dendritic, like branches, leaves, &c.

STRUCTURE IV. Earthy, of a brownish red, like Spanish snuff.

MODE II. Electrum, or greatly alloyed with silver.

STRUCTURE I. Compact.
Dendritic.

MODE III. Alloyed with antimony.

MODE IV. Alloyed with the Sylvanite of Kirwan, so called from Transylvania, where it is found; the Tellurium of Klaproth: but Kirwan's appellation is received by Werner.

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[*] Another name would be preferable. In the Greek *titan* is *lime*.

[*] See Linn. p. 14 (as already quoted), where he says the natural knowledge of stones arises from their structure, the chemical from analysis.

Structure I. Problematic Gold.

Structure II. Graphic Gold.

There are many other alloys. The Sulphurets of gold are very doubtful, as it may be separated by mechanical means.

There are no Oxyds nor Salts.

DOMAIN V.

IRON.

NOME I. ALLOYS.

Mode I. Alloyed with Nickel.
II. Alloyed with lead, &c.

NOME II. SULPHURETS.

Mode III. Pyrites.

Structure I. Massive.
Aspect 1. Common.
2. Hepatic.
Structure II. Crystallised.

Mode IV. Magnetic Pyrites.

NOME III. OXYDS.

Mode V. Magnetic Iron-stone.

Structure I. Compact.
II. Laminar.
III. Crystallised.
IV. Iron Sand.

Mode VI. Specular Iron Ore.

Structure I. Massive.
II. Crystallised.
III. Micaceous Iron Ore.

Mode VII. Red Iron-stone.

Structure I. Scaly.
II. Red Ochre.
III. Compact.
Structure IV. Red Hem tites.

Mode VIII. Brown Iron-stone.

Structure I. Scaly.
II. Ochraceous.
III. Compact.
IV. Brown Hema tites.

Mode IX. Spathose.

Structure I. Amorphous,
II. Crystallised.

Mode X. Black Iron Ore.

Structure I. Compact.
II. Black Hema tite.

Mode XI. Clay Ore.

Structure I. Ruddle, or Red Chalk.
Structure II. Columnar.
III. Lenticular.
IV. Jasper Ore.

For common Clay Iron-stone, see Petralogy.

Structure V. Eagle Stone.
VI. Pisiform.

Mode XII. Bog Iron Ore.

Aspect 1. Morass Ore.
2. Swamp Ore.
3. Meadow Ore.

NOME IV. SALTS.

Mode XIII. Carbonate of Iron.

Mode XIV. Phosphate of Iron.

Structure I. Compact.
II. Native Prussian Blue.
III. With Manganese.

MODE XV. Arseniate of Iron.

STRUCTURE I. Crystallised.
II. With Copper.

MODE XVI. Green Iron Earth.

Aspect 1. Friable.
2. Coherent.

This may be compared with the Petralogy, in regard to the Structures and Aspects. The genera of Thomson have not been admitted by other writers, who arrange all the species in succession, without dividing them into genera. But as these large divisions of Thomson seem very useful, they might be retained under the name of Nomes, or subsidiary districts.

In Lithology Dr. Thomson not having admitted Orders or Genera, but only Families and Species, no confusion could arise; and the Modes belong to the mixtures of the same substance, as Strontian is one Mode, and Celestine is another; that is, the Species of Werner become Modes, while his Subspecies become Structures.

In like manner if we take Iron the first Species, Native Iron is a Mode, or special chemical combination. The second Species, Iron Pyrites, is another Mode with four Structures, Compact, Radiated, Cellular, and Capillary; the Hepatic being an Aspect. The fourth Species, Magnetic Iron-stone, is also a chemical Mode of great importance; whereas in following Dr. Thomson's arrangement it is merely a Structure, while there is not only nothing particular in its exterior Structure, but its Aspects, the Compact, Laminar, and Crystallised, are real Structures. The fifth Species is Specular Iron Ore, which becoming a Structure instead of a Mode, the terms Massive and Crystallised, which belong to Structure, become mere Diversities. In the others, Amorphous, Crystallised, Compact, Columnar, Pisiform, Earthy, become Aspects instead of Structures.

It is therefore necessary in the Metals, as in the Earths, that each new Species or different combination, for example, with Carbon, Arsenic, &c. or with different modifications of various Earths, should be called a Mode, as in the other provinces that word supplies the term Species, and implies in itself a new mode of chemical combination; and in this way only can the term Structure revert to its original destination.

The classical word Nome, derived from Egypt, the parent country of Chemistry, may be found very appropriate, as already explained.

The dignity and importance of the Metals also require a multiplication, instead of a diminution, of the higher terms in the nomenclature. Nor must it be forgotten that the very nature of the subject, in which the substances and their qualities are of themselves various and vague, would render any attempt at mathematical precision rather pedantic than useful or distinct (the qualities, like the substances themselves, often passing into each other); and that every system, even the Newtonian, has its anomalies.

INDEX.

- ACTINOTE Rock ii. 133
- Actinote, Siderite, Mica 14
- Alabaster,
  - Characters of i. 498
  - Sites 499
  - Jameson's observations 500
  - Brard's account of Gypsous ib.
  - Monuments of 501
  - Anydrous 502
  - Observation 503
- Alabaster Dec. ii. 251
- Alum Rock,
  - Name of i. 242
  - Ferber's account ib.
  - Massive 247
    - Characters of ib.
- Aluminous Slate,
  - Characters of ib.
  - Common 248
    - Sites of ib.
  - Glossy 249
  - Alum earth ib.
- Alabastrite,
  - Ancient 458
  - With Stalactite and Stalagmite, the Sinter of the Germans ib.
  - Pliny's account of 459
  - Modern 461
  - Of Volterra 462
  - The onyx alabaster ib.
  - Varieties and sites of 463
  - Fiorito of the Italians 466
- Amygdalite 89
  - Formations of 90
  - Origin 91
  - With agates 92
  - With calcareous spar 93
  - With open pores 95
- Anomalous ii. 58
  - General observations ib.
  - Salts and combustibles 59
  - Coal 60
  - Pyrites ib.
  - How ranked 62
- Anthracite i. 552
  - Born's account of 553
  - Of the Alps 554
  - Brongniart's account of i. 555
  - Friable 556
  - Scaly ib.
  - Schistose ib.
  - Globular ib.
  - Kilkenny coal ib.
  - Swansea coal ib.
  - Anthracite 561
    - Compact ib.
    - Laminar ib.
  - Kirwanite ib.
    - From Kilkenny 562
    - From Swansea ib.
- Argil,
  - How obtained 239
  - When combined 240
  - Homogenous ib.
  - Eminent in gemmology 241
- Argillaceous Glutenite 283
  - Large-grained 284
  - Saussure's description ib.
  - Bricia of Scotland 290
  - Grauwack 291
  - Bergmanite ib.
  - Small-grained ib.
  - Jameson's distinctions, &c. 292
  - Argillaceous sandstone 294
  - Whetstone, &c. 295
  - Gmelin's arrangement 296
  - Saussure's observations ib.
- Argillaceous Intrite,
  - Extent and importance 281
  - With crystals of felspar 282
  - Clay porphyry ib.
  - With various crystals 283

- BARYTIC Rock ii. 138
  - Baroselenite of Kirwan ib.
  - Account of a singular rock near Ambierle ib.
- Basalt,
  - Characters of i. 17
  - Formations ib.
  - Proper ib.
  - Of the ancients 18
  - Fine, termed Basaltin ib.
  - In various places 19
  - Distinguished from Ba-

saltin . . . . . i. 20
Observation on . ib.
Extent of 21
Of Faroe 22
Of dubious origin . . 23
Amorphous . . . . ib.
Sites of . . . . . ib.
Ancient oriental . . 26
Columnar 29
Analysis . . . 31
Observation on . 32
Basaltin with Earthy Felspar ii. 44
Gebrite, why called . ib.
Saussure's description of a diamictonic rock ib.
Basaltin,
Characters of . . . i. 32
Volcanoes 38
Of Etna 41
Of Auvergne . . . 47
Brochant's statement on 56
Brongniart's idea of . 65
Amorphous 66
Uniform . . . 67
Mingled . . . 68
Basaltic tufa . . 69
Brecia . . ib.
Columnar,
Uniform . . . 70
Mingled . . . 71
Basaltin with Siderite . . ii. 45
Rhazite, why called . ib.
Basaltin with Silex . . 46
Ebensinite, why called ib.
Basaltin with Wacken . 46
Albertite, why called ib.
Basaltin with Steatite . 47
Baconite, why called . . ib.
How different from Saussurite . . . ib.
With steatite disseminated ib.
With globules . ib.
Basaltin and Basalt, or Basalton 166
Of Meisner . . . . ib.
Daubuisson's account of . . 167
Ancient basalt . . . ib.
Not volcanic . . 168
Different appearances of ib.
Observation . . . ib.
Basaltin with Porphyry . 169
Examples of . . . 169
Separation of, how marked . . . . ib.
Basaltin and Wacken . . 170
Werner's account . ib.
Observation on . ib.
Observations on Daubuisson's opinion . 172
Basalton,
Characters of . . . i. 72
Name . . . . . . ib.
Grunstein . . . . ib.
Werner's opinion . . 73
Compact 74
Slaty . . . . . . ib.
Klinkstein not allied to basalts 75
Bergart . . . . i. 542
Beryl Rock . . . . . ii. 130
Bituminous Rocks . . . 147
Bitumens more properly belong to chemistry . . . . . ib.
Mostly found in gangarts . . ib.
Werner's doubts ib.
In Scotland . . . ib.
Further illustrations of, necessary . . . ib.
Limestone with naptha or with petrol . . . ib.
Sandstone with mineral tar . . 153
Mumia or asphalt ib.
Bituminous shale ib.
Marl . . . ib.
Limestone with caoutchou . ib.

CALCAREOUS Earth,
How produced . . i. 376
Characters and properties of . . . . . ib.
Limestone produced by decomposition of marine shells . . 378
Davy's experiments on lime . . . . . ib.
Calcareous Intrite . . . 519
Porphyritic . . . ib.
Marble of Nonette . ib.
Calcareous Glutenite . 520
Large-grained . . ib.
Singular bricia of . 521
The Naglefluh a bricia 523
African bricia . . ib.
Antique 524
Violet 525
Modern . . . . . ib.
Bricia of Italy . . . ib.
Of Spain . . . ib.
Of France . . 526
Brèche d'Aleppe . 527

Bricia of Aix . . . i. 528
Of Eygliers . . ib.
Other bricias . . . 529
Common of Saussure ib.
Small-grained . . . 530
Sites of . . . ib.
Of Fontainebleau . 531
Jameson's observations 532
Quadrum 534
Saussure's observations on the sandstone of Fours 535
Sandstone of Vaucluse 537
Of recent formation ib.
Other sandstones . . 538
Sites . . . . . . ib.

Carbon 540
How converted into carbonic acid . . 541
In the diamond . . 542
Chalk 504
Characters of . . . ib.
Sites of . . . . . ib.
Jameson's account of 505
Shells in 506
Indurated 507
Crude . . . . . ib.
Uses of 508
Eggs . . . . . . ib.
Structures and aspects of, various . . . 509
Clay, Spathose Iron . . ii. 28
Clay Rock,
Characters . . . . i. 269
The thonstein of Werner . . . . . . ib.
Dolomieu's description ib.
Impregnated with iron is jasper 270
Frequently in coal and other mines . . . 271
Sites of . . . . . ib.
In Swisserland . . 272
Porcelain clay . . . ib.
Boles . . . . . . ib.
Almagra 273
Clay Slate,
Distinction 249
Jameson's account of 250
Widely extended . . 251
Distinction to be observed . . . . . ib.
Kirwan's account of . 252
Primitive . . . . ib.
Secondary 253
Townson's Analysis . 254
Hone a 255
Cameos of the Chinese 256
Chinese musical balls 257
Antique . . . . . i. 258
Laterite . . . . . ib.
Helms's account . . 259
Primitive 263
Characters of . ib.
Sites . . . . . ib.
Secondary 266
Uniform . . . ib.
Variety . . ib.
With impressions 267
Sites . . . ib.
Variety . . ib.
Black chalk . . . . ib.
Hone . . . . . . ib.
Clay Slate Dec. . . . . ii. 249
Coal . . . . i. 563
Sites . . . . . . ib.
Ancient use of . . . ib.
Soils 565
Patrin's remarks . . 567
Structure 569
Metals, &c. in . . . ib.
Werner's arrangement 570
Black 571
Slate . . . . . . ib.
Cannel 572
Foliated or Laminar . 573
Coarse . . . . . ib.
Brown . . . . . ib.
Earthy 574
Alum earth . . . . ib.
Common brown . . ib.
Moor 575
Observation . . . ib.
Soils . . . . . . ib.
Brongniart's account of 576
Slips or dykes in . . 577
Mines of England . 578
Seldom of the same quality 579
Iridescent 580
Common . . . 581
Laminar or foliated ib.
Cannel . . . . ib.
Columnar . . . ib.
Coal Dec. . . . . . . ii. 251
Composite,
General observations 1
Gmelin's plan . . . ib.
Werner's theory . . 2
Remarks on Daubuisson's plan 3
Saussure's, and others', remarks 6
Pretended granites . ib.
Coral Rock . . . . . i. 473
Origin of . . . . . ib.
Sites 474
Corsilite,
Description of . . . ii. 78

- Saussure's remarks . ii. 79
- Sites . . . . . . ib.
- Smaragdite . . . 80
  - Analysis of . . 81

DECOMPOSED Rocks . . 209
- Loam 210
- Mould . . . . . ib.
- Limestone of Malta . 217
- Kirwan's account . . 221
- Ferruginous rocks . 222
- Basalt . . . . . ib.
- Wacken . . . . . ib.
- Decomposition of importance to the arts 223
- Roman Pharos . . ib.
- Playfair's observations 228

Decomposed Basaltin . 235
- Of Germany . . . ib.
  - Amygdalite . . 236
- Volcanic nature of . 237
- Effects of decomposition 253
- Nature of . . . . ib.
- Rapid decomposition 254
- Ruin of Piura or Pleurs 255

Diallage 81

Diamictonic.
- General observations 36
- Derivative rocks . . 37
- Observations . . . 38
- From the Greek . . 39

FELSITE,
- Characters of . . . i. 160
- Palaiopetre of Saussure ib.
- Petrosilex of Wallerius ib.
- Of Kirwan . . . . ib.
- Varieties of 161
- Of Corsica 162
- Petrosilex, compact felspar 163
- Two kinds of felspar 164
- Feljad . . . . . . ib.
- Forms the base of several porphyries . ib.
- Varieties . . . . . ib.
- Common 165
  - Sites of . . . ib.
- Laminar 166
- Klingstein of Werner ib.
  - Analyses . . . ib.
- Klingstein porphyry schistose 167
- Patrinite described . ib.
- Klaproth's account . 169
- Klingstone porphyry classed with trap . 171
  - Described . . i. 171
  - Not considered volcanic . . 173
  - External Characters . . . . ib.
  - Analysis . . . 174
  - Soda of Donnersberg . . . 175
- Earthy 176
  - Varieties . . . ib.

Felsite and Basaltin . . ii. 173
- Dolomieu's account of 174

Felspar,
- Characters of . . . i. 157
- Common 158
  - Foliated . . . ib.
  - Granular . . . ib.
  - Unctuous . . . ib.
- Mingled . . . . . ib.
- Petuntze of the Chinese 159
- When termed Kaolin ib.
- Opalised termed Labrador stone . . . ib.
- Green of Siberia . . ib.

Felspar, Calcareous Spar ii. 16

Felspar, Fibrous Siderite ib.

Felspar, Quartz, Garnets 15

Felspar, Quartz, Talc . 16

Felspar Dec. 241
- Changed into kaolin . 242
  - Into clay . . ib.

Ferruginous Quartz . . 43
- Zozimite, why called ib.
- Saussure's observations ib.

GARNET Rock 130
- Klaproth's and Vanquelin's analyses . . . ib.
- Cronstedt's opinion . ib.
- Unknown except to Kirwan 131
- Of Scotland . . . . ib.
  - Amorphous . . ib.
  - With siderite, felspar, and mica 132

Geostrome . . . . . . i. 542

Globular Rock,
- Saussure's account of ii. 136

Gneiss,
- Distinctions of . . . i. 211
- With red felspar . . 212
- Primary . . . . . ib.
- With limestone, siderite, and porphyry . 213
- Fertile in metals . . 214
- Tabular,
  - Sites of . . . . ib.
- Laminar,
  - Sites of . . . . ib.

- Plane or Level i. 214
  - Sites of ib.
- Undulated 215
  - Sites of ib.
- Irregular,
  - Sites of ib.
- Of two substances 216
- Gneiss, with Blue Siderite ii. 27
- Gneiss and Mica Slate 189
- Gneiss Dec. 247
  - Examples of ib.
- Granite,
  - Composition of i. 177
  - When termed granitel 178
  - With siderite 179
  - Of Mont Blanc 180
    - Of the summit 181
    - Of the rocks 184
    - Of the southern parts 188
  - Of a large grain 189
  - The syenites of Pliny ib.
    - Varieties of 190
  - With felspar, quartz, and mica 192
    - Varieties of ib.
  - Of a small grain 195
    - Varieties of ib.
  - Veined 197
  - Mingled 198
  - Ancient sculpture of 199
- Granite and Basalt ii. 175
- Granite and Chalcedony 17
- Granite with Gneiss 175
- Granite and Granitic Porphyry 176
  - Dolomieu's observations on ib.
  - Granites 178
  - Porphyries 184
  - Monuments of Rome 185
  - Sites of 188
- Granite and Limestone 20
- Granite with Sappare 95
- Granite with Schorl and Garnets 19
- Granite and Slate 20
  - Saussure's remarks 21
    - Further observations 25
- Granite Dec. 242
  - Of Ben Nevis 243
  - Of Sochondo ib.
  - Of Odon Tchelon 244
  - Kaolin 245
  - In Auvergne ib.
  - Examples of 246
- Granitin,
  - Described i. 201
  - Green 202
- Granitoid i. 209
  - Calcareous granite ib.
  - Argillaceous 210
  - Talcous ib.
- Graniton 202
- Granitic Porphyroid,
  - Described 210
  - Sites of 211
- Green Granitel,
  - Egyptian 362
  - French manufactory of 363
  - In England and Ireland ib.
- Granitel,
  - Definitions of 203
  - Kirwan's observations on mica 204
  - Wernerite ib.
  - Lehmanite 206
  - Henkelite 207
- Graphite 544
  - Brongniart's account of 546
  - Laminar ib.
  - Granular ib.
  - Of Borrodale 549
  - Of Chamouni 550
  - Massive 551
  - Laminar ib.
- Green Marble,
  - Green, characteristic of magnesia 366
  - Also called serpentine ib.
  - Verde antico,
    - Laconian of the ancients ib.
    - Pliny's varieties 367
  - Lapis Thebaicus ib.
  - Verde antico, Brard's account of 268
    - Not a bricia ib.
    - Columns of ib.
    - Spartan ib.
  - Other antique marbles 370
  - Marble of Polsevera 271
    - Of Campan ib.
  - Marbre d'Ecosse 372
  - Marble of Anglesey ib.
- Gypsum,
  - Characters of 482
  - Primitive 484
  - Patrin's opinion 485
  - Geognostic relations of 486
  - Colour of 487
  - Sage's description of Montmartre 488
  - Bones in 492
  - Basaltic selenite 494
  - Primitive ib.
  - Striped 495
  - Crystallised, belongs to lithology 497

- Common . . . . . . i. 497
- Grey 498

Gypsum with Marl . . ii. 56
- Vauquelite, why called ib.

Gypsum with Silex . . 57
- Davite, why called . ib.
- Marble of Vulpino . ib.
  - Uniform . . . ib.
  - Veined . . . ib.

ICONITE,
- Whence the name . i. 278
- Klaproth's analysis . ib.
- Bildstein of the Germans ib.
- Transparent . . . 279
- Opake . . . . . ib.

Indurated Mud . . . . ii. 373
- American volcanoes . ib.
- Melted snow of Etna 375
- Eruption of Macaluba 376

Iron Hills 155
- Sites . . . . ib.
- Bergman's account of Taberg 156
  - Patrin's remarks on 158
- Patrin's further observations . . . . . ib.
  - Account of Blagodat . . . . ib.
  - Account of Keskanar . . . 159
- Entire, iron rock . . 161
- Mixed, with quartz . ib.

Iron Stone,
- Characters of . . . i. 95
- Compact 96
- Columnar 97
- Variegated . . . . ib.
- External characters of 98
- Geognostic situation 99

Jacint Rock . . . . . ii. 129

Jad, the giada of the Italians . . . . i. 347
- Why not described in this work . . . ib.
- Analysis of not satisfactory . . . . ib.
- Corsican green, the felsite of Werner . . ib.
- Seems nearly the same with the iconite of the Chinese . . . ib.
- Called lemanite . . ib.
- Werner's nephrite . 348
- Various kinds of, not analysed . . . . ib.
- Felspath compact jadien of recent French writers . . . . i. 348
- Not sufficiently known to be systematised 349
- Kastner's analysis . ib.
- Reasons for giving an account of . . . ib.

Jad . . . . ii. 81

Jad, Schorl, Garnets . . 17

Jasper,
- Characters of . . . i. 99
- Basanite 100
- White . . . . . ib.
- Sinople . . . . . ib.
- Sites of 101
- Of Siberia . . . . ib.
- Extent . . . . . ib.
- Common,
  - Black 103
  - Red 104
  - Green . . . . ib.
  - Striped . . . . ib.
- Columnar 105

Jasper, with Agate and Chalcedony . . . . ii. 13

Jasper and Keralite . . 172
- Massive 173
- Schistose . . . . . ib.

KERALITE,
- Characters of . . . i. 153
- Hornstein . . . . ib.
- Petrosilex 154
- Chert . . . . . ib.
- Massive . . . . . ib.
  - Common . . . ib.
    - Sites of . . 155
  - Unctuous . . . ib.
- Laminar . . . . . ib.
  - Siliceous schistus ib.
  - Chert 156
  - Varieties . . . ib.

Keralite with Chlorite . ii. 51
- Kunkelite, why called ib.

Keralite Dec. 241

Kollanite 98
- Description . . . ib.
- Pudding-stone of England 99
- Noble flint . . . . ib.
- Chalite 100
- Observation . . . ib.
- Detached pebbles . 101
- Breeding stone . . 102
- Sites . . . . . . ib.
- Mr. Parkinson's observations 103
- Shells in 104
- Silex often recent . 105
- Origin of pebbles . 106

De Luc's observations ii. 107
Dr. Kidd's observation ib.
Patrin's account 110
Brard's account 112
Other sites of ib.
Common pudding-stone 113
Peculiar to England 114
Kirwan's farcilite 115
Kidd's account 116
Accompanies chalk 118
Observation 119
Shells in 120
Varieties of 121
Kouite,
  Distinctions of i. 427
  Name 429
  Characters ib.
  Of Caen 430
  Petworth marble, ignorantly called Purbeck ib.
  Purbeck 431
  Portland ib.
    Called by Da Costa Alkaline sand-stone 432
  Pierre de taille, moellon of the French 433
  Other kinds of ib.
  Pyramids of Egypt ib.
  The lapis troicus of the ancients 434
  Egyptian and other ib.
  Brongniart's account of ib.
  Entire,
    Fine-grained 440
      Sites of ib.
    Coarse ib.
      Sites of ib.
  Conchitic,
    With nummulites 441

LABRADOR Rock ii. 93
  First appearance 94
  Account of ib.
  Noble, or opaline felspar 98
  Norwegian blue ib.
Lava Compact 313
  Basaltin ib.
  Arrangement 314
  Volcanic basaltin 315
    With various substances ib.
    With fragments of ejected rock ib.
  Compact lava with melted garnets ib.
  Porous basaltin 316
  Brochant's account of ib.
  Ferber's ideas 317
  Opinion of Faujas ii. 319
  Sites 320
    Grey compact lava ib.
  Grey lavas of Faujas 321
  Dolomieu's description 323
  Breislak's account 324
    White compact lava ib.
    Brown 325
  Porphyritic lava ib.
  Dolomieu's account of ib.
    Lavas, remarks on 327
Lava Vesicular 328
  Of siderite 371
  Sites of ib.
    With leucite 372
      Sites of ib.
    With zeolite ib.
    With olivine 373
  With felsite ib.
  Felsite lava with siderite ib.
    With mica ib.
Lazulite Rock 88
  Description ib.
  Ultramarine ib.
  Sites ib.
  Patrin's account 89
  Klaproth's analysis 91
  Sapphire of the ancients 92
  Werner's lazulite ib.
Lemanite 82
Lignite i. 583
  German Bergart 584
  Brongniart's account of ib.
  Jet 585
  Friable 587
  Fibrous ib.
  Earthy 590
Limestone,
  Whence the term carbonate of lime 441
  Geologic relations of 442
  Convolved 443
    Saussure's remarks on ib.
  Chert or keralite in 445
  Mural precipices of ib.
  Granular, primitive 446
  Rarely metalliferous but in Siberia and South America 447
  Remarks on ib.
  Formations of ib.
  Seldom pure ib.
  Granular,
    Common ib.
    Chinese tablets a sparry ib.

- Micaceous i. 449
- Compact,
  - Characters of ib.
- Conchitic 451
  - Shells in 452
    - Observations on Pelagic or oceanic ib.
- Zoophytic,
- Pisolite 456
- Sinapite ib.
  - More abundant than pisolite 457

Limestone with Argil ii. 53
- Klaprothite, why called ib.
  - Marble of Campan ib.
  - Limestone with argil ib.

Limestone with Garnets 29
- With amorphous garnet ib.
- With crystallised ib.

Limestone with Gypsum 54
- Lavoisite, why called ib.
  - Massive 55
  - Schistose ib.

Limestone with Olivine 30
- Olivine and chrysolite 31

Limestone with Silex 55
- Bertholite, why called ib.
- Kirwan's observations ib.

Limestone with Steatite 30
- Marble, with veins of steatite ib.
  - With spots ib.

Lime-slate i. 467
- Distinguished ib.
- The *calcareus fissilis* of Wallerius ib.
- Alternation of ib.
- Cipoline ib.
- Of Mont Cenis 468
- Micaceous ib.
- Common 471
- Quarry of, at Stonesfield ib.

Magnesian Glutenite,
- Large-grained 373
  - Steatitic bricia of Corsica ib.
- Small-grained 375

Magnesian Intrite,
- Serpentine porphyry near Florence 372
- Rocks of, described by Saussure 373

Magnesian Limestone,
- Account of 363
- Tenant's analysis of 364
- Dolomite described ib.
- Various forms of i. 365
- Often contains tremolite ib.

Marble,
- Characters of 380
- Why by chemists called carbonate of lime ib.
- Geognostic relations of ib.
- Duration of 381
- Of the temple of Serapis 382
- Of Paros and Carrara 384
- Cipoline ib.
- Granular,
  - Egyptian, Rosso antico 387
    - Described 389
  - Rosso annulato ib.
  - Seme santo ib.
  - Of various colours (see also note) 390
  - Parian ib.
    - Statues of 391
  - Pentelican ib.
    - Monuments and statues of ib.
  - Greek (so called) ib.
    - Statues of 392
  - Translucent ib.
  - Elastic ib.
  - Of mount Hymettus ib.
  - Ancient black ib.
  - Varieties of ancient 394
  - Modern 395
    - Of England ib.
    - Scotland 396
    - Ireland 397
    - Norway ib.
    - Denmark 398
    - Sweden ib.
    - Russia and Siberia ib.
    - Germany 400
    - Swisserland 401
    - France ib.
    - Spain 404
    - Portugal 406
    - Italy ib.
    - Sicily 408
    - Asiatic 409
    - African ib.
    - Numidian 410
    - American 412
- Compact 414
  - Ancient 415
  - Modern ib.
  - Some conchitic 416
- Conchitic ib.
  - Lumachella ib.
    - Varieties of ib.
  - Panno di morte 418

    Occhio di pavone . i. 419
  Zoophytic 424
    Of Caen . . . ib.
    Other sites of . 425
    Of Italy . . . 426
    Of Swisserland . ib.
Marble of Campan . . ii. 134
  Why ranked amongst anomalous rocks . ib.
  Red guttular . . . 135
  Green . . . . . . ib.
Marble of Majorca . . 134
Marble Dec. 250
Marlite . . . . i. 475
  Description of . . ib.
  Marble of Florence . ib.
  Massive 477
    Argillaceous marble ib.
    Pictorial . . . ib.
  Schistose 478
    Impressions of fish in . . . . . ib.
  Of Mont Bolea . . . ib.
  Other quarries of . 479
  With impressions . ib.
    In different parts of the world . . ib.
Miagite . . . . . . ii. 63
  Description of . . . ib.
  Site 64
  Saussure's account . 65
  Ocular 74
    With straight lines ib.
    With zigzag . . ib.
Mica and Actinote . . . 14
Mica Slate,
  Arrangement of . . i. 122
  Connexions . . . . ib.
  Regular 123
  Irregular 124
  Mingled . . . . . ib.
Micarel Slate,
  Distinctions 312

NIOLITE . . . . . . ii. 74

OBSIDIAN 443
  In France 444
    Iceland . . . . ib.
    Bourbon 445
    The hill of Marikan ib.
  Piedra de Galinazzo, or raven-stone . . . 447
  Spallanzani's account of the Glasses of Lipari ib.
  Filaments 458
  Unctuous . . . . ib.
  Currents of 459
  Vitreous . . . . ii. 460
    Entire 461
  Porphyritic 462
    With white fibrous veins . . . 464
    Capillary . . . ib.
    Granular . . . ib.
    Resinous . . . ib.
  Variety of 467
Ollite,
  Characters of . . . i. 327
  Ophite of the ancients ib.
  Of Chiavenna, analysed by Weigleb . . . 328
  Antiquity of . . . ib.
  Varieties of . . . . ib.
  Thebaic stone of the ancients 329
  Theban ophite of Lucan 330
  Dark ophite of Pliny ib.
  Ophite of Boot . . ib.
    Of Laet 331
  Sites of . . . . . ib.
Ollite with Silex . . . ii. 52
  Pottalite, why called ib.
Orsten,
  The Swedish name, preferred . . . . . i. 480
  Description of . . ib.
  Used as fuel . . . 481
  Different kinds and sites of . . . . ib.

PHOSPHORITE . . . . ii. 135
Pisolite . . . . i. 456
Pitch-stone,
  Character of . . . 218
  Compact 219
  Laminar 220
Pitch-stone Dec. . . . ii. 218
Porphyry,
  Name . . . . . i. 75
  Base 76
  Werner's . . . . . ib.
  With large crystals of felspar,
    Red 78
    Black . . . . ib.
    Green . . . . ib.
    Not the ophite of Pliny . . . 79
    Ferber's varieties of 81
  Saussure's statement on 82
    Blue 85
  With smaller crystals,
    Red 86
    Sites of . . . ib.
    Brown . . . . ib.
    Black . . . . ib.

Green . . . . i. 87
Porphyry with Chalcedony ii. 13
Porphyry Dec. 238
Puy de Dome . . . ib.
Saxum metalliferum ib.
Bornite 239
With native gold ib.
With sylvanite . ib.
With dendritic gold ib.
With noble opal &c. 240
Porphyrin . . . . . . i. 87
Porphyroid 88
Porphyron . . . . . . ib.
Pumice . . . . . . ii. 428
Chiefly felspar . . . ib.
Of Lipari 429
Of Campo Bianco . ib.
Origin of 430
Mountain of . . . 431
In beds . . . . . ib.
Globular 433
Compact . . . . . ib.
Porous 434
Fracture of . . . . ib.
Effects of heat on . 435
Varieties of 437
Current 440
Another kind of . . 441
Porous 442
Vesicular 443
Fibrous felsite . ib.

QUARTZ,
Characters of . . . i. 146
Compact opake . . ib.
Semitransparent . 148
Unctuous . . . ib.
Granular . . . . . ib.
Laminar 153
Other structures of . ib.
Quartz with Basaltin . . ii. 50
Torricellite, why called ib.
Quartz with Felspar . . ib.
Guericite, why called ib.
Quartz with Iron . . . 49
Helmontite, why called ib.
Quartz, Limestone, and Saussurite 15
Quartz, Schorl, and Limestone . . . . ib.
Quartz, Siderite, Oxyd of Iron 14
Quartz with Slate . . . 50
Glauberite, why called ib.

RUNITE,
Description . . . . ii. 85
Name . . . . ib.
Sites 86
With distinct crystals 87

SALINE Rocks 141
Bowles's account of . 142
Salt mines, sites of . 143
Of Peru, Ulloa's account of . 144
Kirwan's account . . ib.
Mountain of salt in North America . . 146
Other salt mines . . ib.
Entire, Blue, red, and white . . ib.
Mixed with gypsum . ib.
Sandstone Dec. . . . 248
Sites of 249
Saussurite,
Characters of . . . i. 354
Between basaltin and serpentine . . . 355
Pierre de corne of Saussure . . . . . ib.
Roche de corne with steatite 356
Magnesian propensity of . . . ib.
Passing to serpentine . . . . ib.
Of a black base lava of Ferber and others . . . 357
Cornéenne difficult to determine . . . ib.
Compact . . . 358
Trap 359
Lydian . . . . ib.
Vulgarly called touchstone . 360
Primitive or transitive . . . . ib.
Of Brochant uncertain . . . . ib.
Saussurite Dec. . . . ii. 249
Decayed 250
Schistose Keralite and Limestone 51
Beccherite, why called ib.
Schistose Keralite and Slate ib.
Boylite . . . . . ib.
Serpentine,
Characters of . . . i. 334
Of Mount Rosa . . 337
Italian gabbro . . . 338

- Of Roth Horn . . . i. 341
- Of Mount Cervin . 342
- Magnetic hill of . . 343
  - Humboldt's observations on . . 344
- Chenevix's analysis of 345
- Nephritic 346
  - Asbestos and amianthus almost constant in . ib.
  - Amianthus, observations on . 350
- Werner's common and noble 351
- Italian nephrite . . ib.
- Brochant's verde antico not correctly . . ib.
- The noble of Werner rather belongs to lithology or gemmology 352
- Entire . . . . . ib.
- Mingled 353

Serpentine with Basaltin ii. 53
- Bergmanite, why called ib.

Serpentine with Limestone 28
- Dark green, with grey limestone 29
- The same, with red calcareous spar . . . ib.

Serpentine with Siderite. 53
- Blacolite, why called ib.

Shale and Coal 191
- Impressions . . . . ib.
- Uniform 192
- With impressions . . ib.

Shells in Marble . . . . i. 452

Shorl Rock . . . . . ii. 132
- Entire. 331
- Mingled . . . . . ib.

Sidegea, Siderous Earth . i. 1.
- Its universality . . . 3
- Characters of . . . 4

Siderite,
- Characters of . . . ib.
- Hornblende of the Germans . . . . . . ib.
- Primitive trap . . . 7
- Ancient basalt . . . 8
- Analysis 9
- Common 10
  - Uniform . . . ib.
  - Mingled . . . 11
- Schistose 12
  - Uniform . . . 13
  - Mingled . . . ib.
- Wallerite 16

Siderite and Basalt . . . ii. 165
- Sites . . . . . . ib.

Siderite with Earthy Felspar ii. 42
- Synesite, why called ib.

Siderite with Felspar . . ib.
- Firmicite, why called ib.
- Graustein of Werner ib.

Siderite, Felspar, Graphite 12

Siderite with Mica . . 41
- Democrite, why called ib.

Siderite with Silex . . 39
- Hermite, why called . ib.
- Saussure's description of the glazed rock . 40

Siderite, Unctuous Quartz, Pyrites 12

Siderous Glutenite,
- Classed . . . . . . i. 135
- Pudding-stones . . 136
- Large-grained . . . 137
- Bricia basaltic . . . 138
  - Porphyritic . . ib.
- Small-grained . . . ib.
- Semiprotolites . . . 139
- Lasite 141
- Ferruginous sand-stone 142

Siderous Intrite,
- Intrites distinguished from glutenites . 132
- Classed . . . . . ib.
- Variolites 133
- Iron-stone with imbedded crystals . . . 134

Sideromagnesian Rocks,
- Serpentines 126
- Chlorite 127
- Chlorite Slate . . . 128
  - Characters of . . ib.
  - Sites . . . . . ib.
- Saussure's observation 129
- Actinote . . . . . ib.
  - Glassy 130
  - Characters of . . ib.
- Serpentine siderous . ib.
  - Granular . . . 131
  - Compact . . . ib.

Silex, or Siliceous Earth . 143

Siliceous Glutenite,
- Description of . . . 223
- Origin. . . . . . ib.
- Pudding-stone and bricia ib.
- Sandstone 225
- Largely granulated . 226
- Original and derivative 227
- Kollanites . . . . ib.
- Pebbles 228
  - Green 229
  - With rolled granite ib.
  - Egyptian . . . 230
  - The same . . . ib.
  - Jasper bricia . . ib.

    - Quartz . . . . i. 320
  - Small-grained . . . ib.
    - Kirwan's account 231
    - Coarse 236
    - Fine . . . . . ib.
  - Saussure's varieties of ib.
- Siliceous Intrite,
  - German porphyries . 220
  - Keralite porphyry . 221
  - Felsite 222
  - Pitch-stone . . . . ib.
- Sinapite 456
- Slate,
  - Characters of . . . 105
  - Names . . . . . ib.
  - Potosi 107
  - Quarries of . . . . ib.
  - Mines 108
  - Quarries of Angers . 111
  - Of Italy 118
  - Of Germany . . . ib.
  - Other sites of . . . ib.
  - Quarry of in Cornwall 119
  - Common 120
    - Varieties of . . 121
  - Massive . . . . . ib.
- Slate and Chlorite Slate . ii. 173
- Slate with Lime 49
  - Palissite, why called ib.
- Slate with Magnesia . . 48
  - Valentinite, why called ib.
- Slate with Silex 47
  - Lullite, why called . ib.
- Slate Dec. 240
- Smectite,
  - Called fullers' earth . i. 275
  - Characters of . . . ib.
  - Bergman's mistake . 276
  - Da Costa's information on . . . . . . ib.
  - Use of 277
  - From Cimolus . . . ib.
  - Mingled with quartz ib.
  - Sites of . . . . . ib.
- Steatite,
  - Characters of . . . 313
  - Klaproth's account of 314
    - Analysis of . . 315
  - Da Costa's account of soap earth or . . ib.
    - Further account 316
  - Two distinct structures of 318
  - Patrin's account of . 319
    - With ollite . . ib.
  - Of Saussure,
    - Asbestiform . . 320
    - Specular . . . 321
    - Rock 323
  - Soft . . . . i. 324
    - Sites of 325
  - Of Leske . . . . ib.
  - Hard 326
    - Compact . . . ib.
    - Laminar . . . ib.
- Steatite with Argil . . ii. 58
  - Stahlite, why called . ib.
- Steatite and Asbestos . . 189
  - Saussure's account of a rock of . . . . ib.
- Substances ejected or changed by volcanoes . 515
  - Limestone 516
  - Parasitic stones in . ib.
  - Granite 517
  - Mica slate 518
  - Slate . . . . . . ib.
  - Basalton . . . . . ib.
  - Porphyry . . . . ib.
  - Sand-stone . . . . ib.
- Sulphuric Rocks . . . 153
  - Jameson's account of 154
  - Porphyry with sulphur ib.
  - Mica slate with sulphur 155
  - Limestone with sulphur ib.
  - Sandstone . . . . ib.

- TALC,
  - Distinctions . . . i. 301
  - Common 302
  - Venetian 303
  - Of Chili . . . . . ib.
  - Chalk of Briançon . 304
  - Muscovy 305
    - Large foliated . ib.
    - Undulated . . ib.
    - Involved . . . 306
    - Mingled . . . ib.
  - Massive . . . . . ib.
    - Varieties . . . 307
- Talcous Earth, or Magnesia 288
- Talcous Slate,
  - Characters 309
  - Of Saussure, described ib.
- Topaz Rock . . . . . ii. 127
- Transilient Rocks,
  - Distinct from transitive 163
  - Interesting in the study of geology . . . 164
- Tufa . . . . i. 509
- Description of . . . . ib.
  - Very modern . . . 510
  - Conchitic . . . . ib.
  - Temple of Jupiter Olympius, of . . . 511
  - Of St. Felippe . . . 512

- Travertino . . . i. 512
  - Breislak's account of 513
  - Porous 518
  - Conchitic . . . . ib.
  - Tubular 519
- Tufo . . . . ii. 378
  - Composition of . . ib.
  - A chief part of volcanoes 380
    - Tarras, or puzzolana 421
  - Puzzolana 422
  - Trass, or tarras . . 424
  - Uses of puzzolana . 426

- VOLCANIC,
  - Volcanoes numerous . 268
  - Depth of fuel . . . 269
  - Many extinct . . . 270
  - Chasms 272
  - Effects of water . . 278
  - Compact lava . . . 279
  - Kirwan's opinion . . ib.
  - Other opinions . . 290
  - Compact lava dubious 292
  - Basaltic columns compared with lava . 293
  - Origin of basaltin . . 296
  - Ferrara's system . . 298
  - Submarine volcanoes 299
  - Extinct volcanoes . 302
  - Origin of basaltin . ib.
  - No modern lava prismatic . . . . . ii. 308
- Volcanoes,
  - Singular 519
  - Patrin's theory . . ib.
  - Volcano of Stromboli 520
  - Volcano in the Isle Bourbon 523
  - Submarine volcanoes ib.
  - Volcano in the Isle of Thera 524
  - Submarine volcanoes 525
  - Island of Therasia . 526
    - Of Automate . ib.
    - Of Thia . . . ib.
  - Eruption of 1767 . . 528
- Volcanic Glutenite . . 503
  - Peperino of the Italians ib.
  - Bricias 504
    - Catalogue of, by Faujas . . . 505
  - Volcanic Bricia . . 515
    - Peperino . . . ib.
    - Leucite lava . . ib.
- Volcanic Intrite . . . 469
  - With leucite . . . ib.

- WACKEN . . . . . . i. 273
  - Between basalt and clay 274
  - Often a cornéenne . ib.
- Wacken and clay . . . ii. 172

PLATES IN VOL. I.

The vignette in the title page is an ideal view of mountains and rocks. The eagle, the chief inhabitant of such regions, is introduced to animate the scene. If allegory be wished, it may appear in the dispersion of clouds of obscurity—but that the eagle eye of some future Newton will be required, to explain the laws of nature in this difficult province.

Dom. I. Siderous. Grand cavern of Staffa, from Pennant .... p. 1
II. Siliceous. Mont Blanc, from the vale of Chamouny, chiefly from Saussure 142
III. Argillaceous. The Andes, near Quito, which city appears on the upland plain. The highest mountain on the right, intersected with clouds, is Chimborazo. The next, a volcano, is Cotopacsi; that on the left of the plate is Tunguragua. From Bouguer's *Figure de la Terre,* Paris 1749, 4to. 239
IV. Talcous. Mount Rosa, from Saussure 298
V. Calcareous. The Pyrenees, with the summit of Mont Perdu, and Cylinder of Marboré. This view is taken from the vale of Estaubé, to the north of Bareges. From Ramond's *Voyage au Mont Perdu* 376
VI. Carbonaceous. The coal hill of St. Gilles, near Liege, from *Lam. Th. de la Terre.* See the Appendix 540

FINALS, AT THE BOTTOM OF THE PAGES.

1. Chemical instruments, portable furnace, blow-pipe, &c. .... End of Introduction.

2. An *Aretia*, from Haller, one of the plants which Saussure found at the greatest height of vegetation on Mont Blanc .... p. 142
3. *Silene Acaulis*, another plant in a similar situation ... 375
4. *Lichen Furfuraceus*, often found on high rocks. Hoffman, tab. ix. fig. 2 .... [illegible]
5. *Lichen Floridus*, also often alpine. Hoffman....End of vol.

PLATES IN VOL. II.

Title. An altar of rocks, inscribed in the ancient Greek character, " To the Gods Creators."
Dom. VII. Mount Caucasus, from Pallas .... p. 1
VIII. Allegorical 36
IX. Glacier of Miage, from Saussure 58
X. Carpathian mountains, from Townson's Travels in Hungary 163
XI. A granitic mountain falling, by decomposition, imaginary 209
XII. Vesuvius during the eruption of 1794. From Sir W. Hamilton 268

FINALS.

1. An Alpine lichen, from Hoffman 162
2. *Lichen caperatus*. Hoffman, xlii. 1. 590
Mathematical plate of Veins 633
Two plates of Shells ....End of vol.

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